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ON THE DETECTION OF METALS BY THE SMELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

NOTHING is more common than for the ignorant to ridicule what they do not understand: I am one of those who, both in a moral and physical point of view, consider the *vox populi* as the *vox veritatis et Dei;* and I believe the mass of the people are seldom radically wrong, especially upon objects of opinion which are cognizable by the organs of sense, in which, from morbid affection, individuals may differ, but the public of all ages can scarcely be mistaken.

The Society of Antiquarians have long been held up to ridicule, because it had been a practice with them to indicate the degree of purity, and in some instances to guess at the age of coins, vases, and different implements of antiquity by the palate or perception of taste; but we are now convinced to demonstration that there is in this notion and practice somewhat more than merely fancy. The splendid discoveries which the extension of chymical philosophy has unveiled to us, pretty clearly points out the separation or formation of either acid, alkali, or soluble metallic salt, when two different metals (and, in certain instances, alloys) are brought into contact with the moistened sentient fibrous papillæ of the tongue and palate, and that a discriminating taste would, without much difficulty, be able to state even the nature of an alloy, the place where a metal is soldered, though it should completely elude the eye, or, by the quantum of sapid soluble

deposit, guess at other characters of the substance upon the same principle as that affected by the skilful connoisseur.

This practice is not of modern date; indeed in proportion to our want of scientific information the faculty of studiously attending to external appearances seems to have been proportionally great. Physicians, for instance, in the days of Hippocrates, attended their patients' bedsides with the sedulousness of nurses; but the beams which the sciences have reflected upon the healing art have since those days elevated the medical character, and not only dispensed with that needless and superfluous attention, but directed in many instances the periodic changes with a precision nearly mathematical. But to return; the following pertinent quotation from *Mastill*, act i. scene iii. ver. 101, will show the truth of what I have already intimated; and if it betray the jealousy it will also prove the delicacy of the ancients:

SCAPHA. *Cape igitur speculum*
Linteum cape, atque exterge tibi manus.

PHILMAT. *Quid ita obsecro?*

SCAPHA. *Ut speculum tenuisti ne olcant tibi manus;*
Ne usquam argentum te suscepisse suspicitur Philolactus.

Philmatia having taken up a mirror, the prudent Scapha gives her a towel, and desires her to wipe her fingers, lest her lover should suspect by the smell that she had been receiving money. "The ancients," says the elegant and distinguished prelate who wrote the Chymical Essays, "knew much better than the moderns how to distinguish the purity of the noble metals by the smell.*

The witty emperor Vespasian, on being reproached for his tax upon urine, desired the parties who traduced him to smell at the money it

* We do not mean in all respects to assert the correctness of the conclusions of the ancients; for instance, in elementary arithmetical works it is not unusual to insert problems on specific gravity. Thus it is required to find the quantity of silver in the crown of Hiera, king of Syracuse, and which the artist had adulterated. Archimedes conceived specific gravity, and others after him down to this day, as competent to solve the problem; but modern chymistry acknowledges no change in which a metallic alloy is an exact arithmetical mean between the respective specific gravities of the metals constituting the amalgam. Therefore, the modes instituted in *Medial Allegation* by arithmeticians is in this sense fallacious; and we shall, on some future occasion, point out many other sources of fallacy in the application of direct mechanical calculation in processes which have their origin in chymical affinities.

brought into the coffers of the state. The *suavis odor lu cri ex re qua-libet*, might be also with equal justice applied to those who exercise the urinals at Rome, as officers of a more modern date, who do not, it is well known, turn up their noses at what would justly offend the more delicate and fastidious.

To conclude, Mr. Editor, we are assured, at the present day, that many savage nations can by their organs of smell determine the degree of purity of gold.

Yours, and a well-wisher to your labours,

ALPHA.

ON AFFORDING RELIEF TO THE WEST INDIA PLANTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THERE cannot be a more important question discussed in all the arguments of political economy than imposing restrictions on the agricultural interests of this country, to relieve another class of subjects from the imperious difficulties which surround them from the peculiar state of affairs. The prohibition against distillation of corn opens a wide field for investigation: there are so many circumstances upon which this measure operates, and so interwoven with the first interests of the state, that I could wish some able hand would explore the subject through its different channels, and present us with an elaborate and accurate statement of its several bearings.

The riches and prosperity of a nation consist in the extent of her population, maintained by its own resources, and in the amount of its surplus labour. Agriculture occupies the most distinguished consideration, since by it food is obtained for the people, and in proportion to its plenty and moderation in price, so is the price of labour diminished and manufacture enlarged. It is obvious, therefore, that whatever impediments is offered to the industry of the husbandman, must curtail his exertions, and abridge the produce of the land, thereby threatening the most incalculable dangers to the state.

But I must admit the deplorable situation of the West India planters demands from the country the most ready and effectual assistance, as it values the revenue of five millions, which is derived through various duties on West India imports; near three of which are produced from sugars alone, separated from the important consideration of the

tonnage, freight, insurance, &c. which it employs. It may not be amiss to go back to the origin of the evil, which commenced by the destruction of that great colony, St. Domingo, through the dreadful French revolution, which occasioned those sanguinary wars in that fertile and valuable island, the produce of which was equal to Martinique, Guadaloupe, and Cayenne, or about one-third of the whole import of sugars into Great Britain; this immense quantity, on being thrown out of the market, enhanced the prices, and urged the British planters to enlarge the cultivation of sugar to the amount of this enormous deficiency; the increased demand, and splendid emoluments which were derived, stimulated exertion, and rose the merchants in a scale of prosperity which enriched the country. But after the first ten years, we commence an era reverse in prospect, and retrograde in means. Betwixt the periods of 1799 and 1808, every article became advanced one-third, consumption lessened, difficulties increased, and duties augmented! Four fifths of the land is employed in the growth of sugar, which is totally unfit for other uses, since cotton will not thrive on sugar lands, and coffee requires a virgin soil.

West India commerce employs 236,000 tons of shipping, and 17,000 seamen, providing, besides the revenue of five millions to the country, a profit of two millions circulated amongst different classes of people, and consumes to the annual amount of six millions in *British manufactures*. India and China employ not one-half the number of seamen, nor above one-third the tonnage; besides, short voyages are more useful in the discipline of the body to the variation of climate, and restores to the country at short periods a portion of seamen qualified for any service in our fleets. Another branch for the nursery of seamen is found in the fisheries, a great part of which is consumed by the West Indians, and may be considered equal to 8000 seamen more. This illustration of the importance of the West India commerce will serve to moderate the complaints of agricultural advocates, and induce them to acquiesce in a relief which circuitously operates on their interests as much as any restriction on the distillation of corn affects the welfare of the farmer, when complaints against substituting sugars for corn in the distilleries deprives him of a market for an article which is the staple commodity in agriculture; it forces him to convert arable into pasture, and to alter his crops, which considerably injure his interests. It might not be supposed that a restriction upon only one-eighth of the amount of corn grown, or about 700,000 qrs. (occupying 170,000 acres of land) would operate in that very prejudicial manner; and since that 700,000 qrs. imported are now materially lessened, from the state

of the continent, nearly an equal demand still exists; and this might be rendered certain by prohibiting all importations of corn after a certain time; if this measure were adopted, the farmers would grow presently the same quantity of barley as before the distillation from corn was stopped. The injury, by withdrawing a consumption of 700,000 qrs. of barley, is not confined to this alone, but the precariousness in which it places the farmer in respect to his range or succession of crops: oats cannot, on many lands, be introduced in the place of barley; and, as exhausting the strength of the land, they are always avoided but under particular circumstances. Wheat and turnips thrive best after a crop of barley, and the latter is more flourishing after wheat, so that those mutually assist each other. The turnip husbandry is a most essential thing, for more sheep are bred in proportion. Oats will not come in as an intervening crop, for if sown too early they run to straw, and if too late an inferior crop is obtained.

Notwithstanding these objections, it is essential to relieve the West India planters, and by substituting sugar for corn in the distilleries, nearly 40,000 hogsheads would be consumed annually, forming a most material relief; for as the average imports are 280,000 hogsheads, one-half of which is consumed in England, 2-7ths of the amount of the exports will be taken off by the distilleries. It is calculated that five millions of gallons of spirits are consumed in England, including 1,300,000 gallons imported from Ireland and Scotland, of which quantity one-third is imported from the first country and two-thirds from the other. The amount of sugars is therefore readily obtained, by reckoning eleven gallons of spirits produced from every hundred weight of sugar. The English distilleries yield a revenue of two millions per annum, which is collected at a halfpenny in the pound.

Molasses only give eight gallons of spirits to each hundred weight.

Rum is another important article in West India produce; about 70,000 puncheons are manufactured, one-fifth is consumed in the islands, and the other four-fifths equally divided betwixt England and America; now, as the victualling-office purchased in 1805, 250,000 gallons rum, and 625,000 brandy for public uses, it has been suggested to substitute the first for the latter entirely in the navy, as an additional measure of relief. The annual consumption in Great Britain of brandy is about 16,000 puncheons, of Hollands Geneva 6000, and of rum 23,000; therefore it may be seen to what extent we can increase the consumption of rum in preference to brandy, by which we benefit our enemy.

The old West India islands, viz. Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Kitts, &c.

gave about 250,000 hogsheads, or near four-fifths of our imports; the new conquered colonies, viz. Trinidad, Demerara, St. Lucie, Surinam, and Tobago, yield near 50,000 hogsheads; the Brazils 50,000 hogsheads; and Danish islands 30,000 hogsheads.

Ireland imports from the West Indies direct, exclusive of the 14,000 hogsheads which she has from England, 11 000 hogsheads. In 1802 and 1803 (two years peace) we imported better than 300,000 hogsheads, out of which Ireland had her usual quantity, and we exported to other parts 140,000 hogsheads.

Our exports of corn to the colonies is 18,000 qrs. and they receive besides from America on an average 400,000 bushels corn, 450,000 cwt. of bread, flour, meal, &c. &c. 183,000 bushels flour and meal from Great Britain; by this will be seen the general consumption of the West India islands, and the demand which will fall on Great Britain in the event of a rupture with America. The distillers complain that by being restrained from the use of corn, the grains which they dispose of, feeding 5000 head of cattle, will be lost; that sugar wash is not capable of subsisting so many cattle, unless mixed with chaff or some other medium; and that brewers' grains do not go so far by two-thirds as those from the distilleries. The spirit from sugar is not so good as that from corn, although it is a prejudice which may be worn off; and it requires less labour and less fire. Yet these are overbalanced by the injury which the utensils suffer; or at best the saving in one instance will but compensate for the loss in the other. If, however, the complaint of the farmer is attended to in respect to corn, it should be observed that some endeavour ought to be made by him to seek a recompence for his country by encouraging the growth of hemp, an article of such utility as should embrace the earliest attention of the legislature, since we are excluded from Russia, Prussia, &c. We import 33,000 tons of hemp, or, including Ireland, near 40,000; out of which 16,000 are used in the navy. Now, four acres will produce one ton of hemp, worth 82*l.* or 20*l.* per acre; and four quarters of barley grows on an acre, worth 8*l.* This surely opens a fair opportunity to cultivate this desirable commodity, especially as many as twenty-two millions of waste land exist in Great Britain only, or very near half of the whole number of acres: the proportions are rated for England 6,259, Wales 1,629, and Scotland 14,218; with such ample means, in competent and virtuous hands, the resources of the state are equal to any emergency. But when we forsake the real sources of wealth and self-defence, we abandon every thing which can rescue us from the long and grievous error we have so contumaciously pursued.

The whole country is relaxed under oppressive burthens, disgusted with the corruptions and vices of government, which, unless promptly remedied, will, at no distant time, involve the once grand and flourishing empire of Great Britain into a vassalage of France.

SYPHAX.

ON DISTILLATION FROM CORN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

I TAKE the liberty of addressing you on a subject of great importance, that is at present under the consideration of his majesty's ministers, I mean the renewal of the act passed in the last session of parliament for prohibiting distillation from corn in the united kingdom for a limited period, which will expire on the 4th of March; on this subject doubts are entertained by some, and particularly with regard to Ireland.

The advantages that have resulted from this measure to the country at large, and to the West India interests in particular, I am persuaded have only to be explained to insure general support and approbation.

The crops of corn in the year 1808 throughout the united kingdom were by all admitted to be deficient; this fact was confirmed by the smallness of the stock of old corn that remained at the close of the last harvest, when old wheat in particular brought prices seldom known. Fortunately the surplus of oats in Ireland, which would otherwise have been consumed in the Irish distilleries, afforded a large supply of oatmeal for bread to the extensive and populous manufacturing districts in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and the west of Scotland, which lessened the consumption of wheat, and prevented the prices of all kinds of grain from advancing to still more exorbitant rates. The produce of last harvest scarcely reached an average crop; and from unfavourable weather in the autumn, the quality was materially injured in consequence; and notwithstanding that there has been during the winter a very large importation of foreign corn, the prices of both wheat and barley are higher at present than they were at the same period last year, as appears by the corn returns: wheat being 12*s.* and barley 6*s.* per quarter; oats are about the same value, which strikingly confirms what I have advanced.

In Ireland, last spring, when expectations were generally enter-

tained there that the prohibition of distillation from corn would have been withdrawn in that part of the united kingdom, the price of oats advanced in the Dublin market between the 4th of February and the 6th of March 8*s*. 6*d*. per barrel of 196 pounds, equal to five Winchester bushels; it appears by the returns from that market that the highest price on the 4th of February was 21*s*. 6*d*. and on the 6th of March 30*s*.; in the end of that month this expectation was abandoned, and in consequence the prices returned to their former standard, the highest rate on the 1st of April being 22*s*. per barrel. From these facts it is evident that had distillation from corn been allowed in Ireland last year the prices would have become exorbitantly high, since the expectation only drove the price of oats (the kind of grain chiefly used for distillation in Ireland) in the Dublin market to the alarming price of 30*s*. per barrel, equal to 48*s*. per Winchester quarter, which would have been followed by a still more serious advance in those markets of this kingdom that in a great measure depend on receiving supplies of this grain from Ireland.

From this view of the subject, I am persuaded that the landed interest and farmer must be satisfied that they have no injury to apprehend from the continuance of this salutary measure, as the present prices of grain fully remunerate the growers in every part of the united kingdom; but if a different opinion should any where exist, I beg to point out a clear and obvious remedy, by which no class or description of his majesty's subjects would be injured. At present there is a great importation of foreign corn into this kingdom from hostile countries, chiefly from France; this trade is carried on under licenses granted by his majesty's government, and the article must unfortunately be paid for, as I apprehend, chiefly in specie, our exports to these countries being very limited, as clearly appears by the rates of exchange being more against England than can almost be recollected by the oldest merchant. In last month (January) the import into London alone, of foreign wheat, amounted to 142,379 quarters, and of oats to 39,302 quarters; valuing the first at 80*s*. and the last at 30*s*. per quarter, they amount to the large sum of 628,850*l*. paid to our enemies for corn in one month, by London only, thus feeding their resources and encouraging their agriculture, whilst complaints are made by some that markets are wanted for the sale and consumption of our own growths, since certainly to permit foreign imports as much implies a scarcity as permitting distillation from corn implies a surplus; these measures, if permitted at the same time, would be in direct contradiction to each other. If then it should be thought that our growth and stocks of corn were

sufficient for our consumption, in place of again plunging the West India planter into a renewed state of overwhelming distress, by putting an end to the use of sugar in the distilleries, let government be requested to put a stop to the importation of foreign corn by license, and those markets now supplied in that manner would then receive similar supplies of British and Irish growth, which would take off every surplus, and fully relieve those, if there are any, who have cause to complain; the Irish farmer, in particular, would then have access to the London market with his oats, from which he has long been in a great degree excluded by the preference given to foreign supplies. This is the object to which, in my humble opinion, the Irish members of parliament may and ought to direct their attention with the happiest effects.

In this subject the interest of the great manufacturing body in the united kingdom, as well as the labouring poor, must go hand in hand with the West India planters, it being of the first importance to all, that we should have within ourselves a well husbanded supply of food, and particularly of bread, at rates such as the prices and value of labour can afford to pay.

The claims of the West India planters and merchants on the government and country at large for protection, are such as, I think, cannot be resisted; it must always be remembered, that confined to drawing all their supplies, to consuming British manufactures, and to employing British shipping only, they have no markets for their produce but those of this kingdom, to which they are imperatively restricted. Previous to the distillation of sugar being permitted, the prices of this article were reduced to so low an ebb, that the net proceeds in this kingdom did not, upon an average, defray the expence of cultivation and manufacture in the West Indies, without returning one penny to the planter for the use of his capital, the support of his family, or the payment of his debts. Under these circumstances, many were ruined, and all forced to contemplate the same fate, unless it could be averted by legislative measures for their relief. At this period too, their own growth of sugar exceeding the consumption of the mother country, and almost without aid from export vents, the Danish islands were taken possession of, and their crops admitted to be imported for home consumption on the same terms with those of our own colonies, thus increasing a supply, before too large, and adding, if possible, to the distress of the British sugar-planter. Other foreign colonies have since been conquered; their produce is more than adequate to any foreign demand hitherto experienced in our markets, as it must be sold for export only. Before a bark of British plantation

sugar can be disposed of in that way, the foreign will be first taken off, and in consequence the home market is the only one open to our own planters.

It was in this state of distress that the government found our West India planters, when its attention became directed to their case; the subject underwent a long and minute investigation in parliament; the facts were fully made out by the strongest evidence; and distillation from corn was prohibited as a measure of wisdom, precaution, and relief; the result proves the wisdom of the measure; the landed interest have not been injured, the crops of corn have been husbanded, a matter at all times most important, but particularly during a period of such extended warfare; the farmer has been fully remunerated for his labour, the manufacturer and labouring poor have supplies of bread, in a certain degree secured to them at comparatively reasonable prices, and the West India planter, partaking in the general benefit, has also cause to rejoice; the revenue too, I believe, has been fully protected, and with a continuance of the measure may, I am informed, be still more improved.

I trust, that without going into more minute detail, I have made it out to the satisfaction of every person, that it is highly necessary the prohibition of distillation from corn throughout the united kingdom should be continued, at least till the fate of the ensuing crop is fully ascertained. I am, Sir, your most obedient servant,

Liverpool, Feb. 10, 1810. MERCATOR.

QUERY ON NICKEL, AND ITS PROPERTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

HAVING seen many interesting queries respecting trades and manufactures most satisfactorily answered through the medium of your Magazine, and in a more explicit way than by reference to the most extensive library, and in many instances truly original, I have to trouble you with an inquiry respecting the metal or *semi*-metal called *nickel*:—What are its properties, and to what use is it applied in the British manufactures? I observe in the works of the celebrated Fourcroy (lately deceased) that great quantities thereof are brought from Saxony to Paris for the use of the different manufactures.

I make no doubt but some of your numerous correspondents, ac-

quainted with the theory and practice of dying, the potteries, glass manufactories, &c. will have the goodness to explain their knowledge of this article.

OXIDES.

ON THE ORIGIN OF LOTTERIES, AND THER BANEFUL EFFECTS TO THE PUBLIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

AS your work is intended for the benefit of tradesmen, and has often contained good advice and cautions to tradesmen in general, I have now to call the attention of your readers to a public nuisance, that is one of the greatest banes to trade and industry perhaps in the known world: I mean *The Lottery*. Strange it is, that whilst gaming is forbidden by laws and statutes, and the morals of the metropolis guarded by a vigilant Society for the Suppression of Vice, that this species of gambling, with a certainty to lose, should be publicly countenanced, not only to strip the pockets of the industrious and labouring class, but to be the fountain and source of crimes, many the most dreadful.

It is a well-known fact, that venturing in the lottery makes a very conspicuous figure in most of the accounts of modern bankrupts, many little tradesmen risking their last shilling to retrieve an unlucky turn of trade.

Some few years back, one lottery in the year was found sufficient for the credulous and unwary; but now, no sooner is one over than another is announced; and every scheme that is published is rendered more complex in its plan in order to deceive the purchasers, and hold out fallacious benefits, when every succeeding lottery contains the greater risk.

In former times, when these nuisances were not carried to the excess they are at present, the government thought proper to suppress them, which will be seen in Dr. King's works, vol. ii. page 169, during the reign of Queen Anne.

The first lottery that we read of was one drawn in the year 1569: it consisted of 40,000 lots, at 10s. each lot; the prizes were plate, and the profits were to go towards repairing the havens of this kingdom.—"It was drawn at the west door of St. Paul's cathedral; the drawing began on the 11th Jan. 1569, and continued incessantly drawing day

and night till the 6th of May following. There were then only three lottery-offices in London; and the proposals for this lottery were published in the year 1567-8. It was at first intended to have been drawn at the house of Mr. Dericke, her majesty's jeweller, but was afterwards drawn as above-mentioned.

In 1748 Dr. Rawlinson shewed the following paper to the Antiquarian Society.

"A proposal for a very rich lottery, generally without any blanks, containing a great number of good prizes, as well of ready money as of plate, and certain sorts of merchandize, having been valued and prized by the commandment of the queen's most excellent majesty's order, to the extent that such profits as may chance to arise therefrom, after the charges borne, may be converted towards the reparation of the havens, and strength of the realm, and towards such other public good works. The number of lots shall be 400,000 and no more, and every lot shall be the sum of 10*s.* only and no more. To be filled by the feast of St. Bartholomew. The shew of prizes are to be seen in Cheapside, at the sign of the Queen's Arms, the house of Mr. Dericke, goldsmith, servant to the queen.—Printed by H. Bynneman, 1567."

"In the year 1612, King James, in special favour for the present plantation of English colonies in Virginia, granted a lottery to be held at the west end of St. Paul's, whereof one Thos. Sharplys, a tailor of London, had the chief prize, which was 4000 crowns in fair plate."—*Baker's Chronicle, and Smith's History of Virginia.*

I am yours, &c.

A Friend to Industry, but not to Gaming.

HISTORY OF COFFEE, AS CULTIVATED IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

THE earliest accounts we have of coffee is taken from an Arabian manuscript, in the French library, as follows:—

Schehabeddin Ben, an Arabian author of the ninth century of the Hegira, attributes to Gemaleddin Mufti, of Aden, a city of Arabia Felix, who was nearly his contemporary, the first introduction into that country of drinking coffee. He tells us that Gemaleddin, having occasion to travel into Persia, during his abode there, saw some of his countrymen drinking coffee, which at that time he did not much attend to; but on his return to Aden, finding himself indisposed, he de-

termined to try it himself, and after making the experiment, he not only recovered his health, but perceived other useful qualities in that liquor; such as relieving the head-ach, enlivening the spirits, and preventing drowsiness. From the last quality he recommended it to the dervises, to enable them to pass the night in prayer and other exercises of their religion with greater zeal and attention. This example of the mufti gave reputation to coffee; and soon the men of letters, and persons belonging to the law, adopted the use of it; these were followed by the tradesmen and artizans that were under the necessity of working in the night, and by such as were obliged to travel late after sunset. At length the custom became general in Aden, and it was not only drank in the night by those who were desirous of being kept awake, but in the day, for the sake of its other agreeable qualities.

The Arabian author adds that they found themselves so well by drinking coffee, that they entirely left off the use of an infusion of an herb called in their language *cat*, which possibly might be tea.

Before this time coffee was scarcely known in Persia, and very little used in Arabia where the tree grew; but, according to Schehabeddin, it had been drank in Ethiopia from time immemorial. Coffee being thus received at Aden, passed by degrees to many neighbouring towns, and shortly reached Mecca, where it was introduced by the dervises as at Aden. The inhabitants of Mecca were at last so fond of this liquor, that without regarding the intention of the religious and other studious persons, they at length drank it publicly in coffee-houses, where they assembled in crowds to pass the time agreeably, making that the pretence; here they played at chess and other kinds of games, even for money. From hence the custom extended itself to many other towns of Arabia, and particularly to Medina, and then to Grand Cairo, in Egypt, where the dervises of the province of Yemen, who lived in a district by themselves, drank coffee the nights they intended to spend in devotion. They kept it in a large red earthen vessel, and received it respectfully from the hand of their superior, who poured it out into cups for them himself, and shortly after this custom was followed by most of the inhabitants of Cairo.

Coffee continued its progress through Syria, but was received at Damascus and Aleppo with opposition; and in 1554, under the reign of the great Soliman, being 100 years after its introduction by the mufti of Aden became known to the inhabitants of Constantinople, when two private persons, whose names were Schems and Hekin, the one from Damascus, the other from Aleppo, each opened a coffee-house in Constantinople, and sold coffee publicly in rooms fitted up in an

elegant manner, which were presently frequented by men of learning, and particularly poets, and other persons, who came to amuse themselves with a game of chess, or draughts, or to make acquaintance, and pass their time agreeably at a small expence. These houses and assemblies incessantly became so much in vogue that they were at length frequented by people of all descriptions, and even by the officers of the seraglio, and persons of the first rank about the court; insomuch that the Imams, or officers of the mosques, complained of their being deserted, while the coffee-houses were full of company. After much wrangling, the devotees united their interests to obtain an authentic condemnation of coffee, and presented a petition to the mufti, in which they stated, that roasted coffee was a kind of coal, and that what had any relation to coal was forbidden by law. The chief of the law, without entering much into the question, pronounced that the drinking of coffee was contrary to the law of Mahomet. Immediately all the coffee-houses were shut, and the officers of the police were commanded to prevent any one from drinking coffee. However, the habit of it was become so strong, and the use of it so generally agreeable, that the people continued, notwithstanding all prohibitions, to drink it in their own houses. The officers of the police, seeing they could not suppress the use of it, allowed of the selling of it on paying a tax, and the drinking it, provided it was not done openly; so that it was drank in particular places, with the doors shut, or in the back rooms of some of the shop-keepers' houses.

Under this colour, coffee-houses by little and little were re-established, and a new mufti, less scrupulous and more enlightened than his predecessor, having declared publicly that coffee had no relation to coal, and that the infusion thereof was not contrary to the law of Mahomet, the number of coffee-houses became greater than before. The grand viziers, having possessed themselves of a special authority over the houses in which it was permitted to be drank publicly, took advantage of this opportunity of raising a considerable tax on the licenses they granted for that purpose, obliging the master of each house to pay a sequin per day, limiting, however, the price at an asper per dish.* Thus far the manuscript in the French library. But during the war in Candia, when the Ottoman affairs were in a critical situation, there was a total suppression of coffee-houses. The liberty which the politicians who frequented those houses took in speaking too

* The asper is a small silver coin of the value of a fraction more than an English halfpenny; a sequin is 243 aspers.

freely of public affairs was carried to that length that the grand vizier Kupruli, father of the two famous brothers of that name, who afterwards succeeded him, suppressed them all during the minority of Mahomet IV. with a disinterestedness hereditary in his family, without regarding the loss of so considerable a revenue, of which he reaped the advantage himself. But after the shutting up of the coffee-houses, no less coffee was drunk, for it was carried about in large copper vessels with fire under them through the great streets and markets. This was only done at Constantinople; for in all other towns of the empire, and even in the smallest villages, coffee-houses continued open as before.

Notwithstanding this precaution of suppressing public meetings at coffee-houses, the consumption of coffee increased; for there was no house or family, rich or poor, Turk or Jew, Greek or Armenian, who are very numerous in that city, where it was not drunk at least twice a day; for it became a custom in every house to offer it to all visitors, and it was reckoned an incivility to refuse it; so that many people drank 20 dishes a day, and that without any inconvenience, which is supposed by the author an extraordinary advantage; and another great use of coffee, according to him, is its uniting men in society in stricter ties of amity than any other liquor; and he observes, that such protestations of friendship as are made at such are often more to be depended upon than when the mind is intoxicated with inebriating liquors. He computes that as much is spent in private families in the article of coffee at Constantinople as in wine at Paris, and relates, that it is as customary there to ask for money to drink coffee as in Europe for money to drink your health in wine or beer.

Another curious particular we find mentioned is, that the refusing to supply a wife with coffee is reckoned among the legal causes of a divorce. The Turks drink their coffee very hot and strong, and without sugar; now and then they put in when it is boiling a clove or two, bruised according to the quantity, or a little of the *seman badian*, called starry anniseed, or some of the lesser cardimums, or a drop of essence of amber. It is not easy to determine at what time or upon what occasion the use of coffee passed from Constantinople to the western parts of Europe; it is however likely that the Venetians, upon account of the proximity of their dominions, and their great trade to the Levant, were the first acquainted with it. Mr. Galand tells us he was informed by M. de la Croix, the king's interpreter, that M. Thevenot, who had travelled through the east, at his return, in 1657, brought with him to Paris some coffee for his own use, and often treated his friends

with it, amongst which number M. de la Croix was one; that from thence he had continued to drink it, being supplied by some Armenians who settled at Paris, and by degrees brought it into reputation in that city.

Before the year 1669 coffee had not been seen at Paris, except at M. Thevenot's and some of his friends, and scarce heard of but from the account of travellers. That year was distinguished by the arrival of Soliman Aga, ambassador from Mahomet IV. and which must be looked upon as the true period of the introduction of coffee into Paris, that minister and his retinue having brought a considerable quantity with them, which they presented to many persons of the court and city.

Yet it appears that the use of coffee was introduced into London some years earlier than at Paris; for in 1652, one Mr. Edwards, a Turkey merchant, brought home with him a Greek servant who understood the roasting and making of coffee, till then unknown in England; and this servant, whose name was Pasqual, was the first who sold coffee, and kept a house for that purpose in George-yard, Lombard-street. The first mention of coffee in our statute-books is 12 Charles II. cap. 24, when a duty of 4*d.* was laid upon every gallon of coffee made and sold, to be paid by the maker. The statute of 15 Charles II. cap. 11, directs that all coffee-houses should be licensed at the general quarter sessions of the peace for the county.

In 1675 King Charles issued a proclamation to shut up the coffee-houses, but in a few days suspended the same. They were charged with being seminaries of sedition.

The first account of the coffee tree being brought into Europe we have from Boerhaave, in his Index of the Leyden Garden, part ii, page 217, which is as follows: Nicholas Witsen, burgo-master of Amsterdam, and governor of the East India Company, by his letters, often advised and desired Van Hoorn, governor of Batavia, to procure from Mocha, in Arabia Felix, some berries of the coffee tree, to be sown at Batavia, which he having accordingly done, and by that means, about the year 1690, raised many plants from seeds, he sent one over to Witsen, who presented it to the garden at Amsterdam, of which he was the founder and supporter; it there bore fruit, which in a short time produced many young plants from the seeds.

In the year 1714 the magistrates of Amsterdam, in order to pay a particular compliment to Lewis XIV. king of France, presented to him an elegant plant of this rare tree, carefully and judiciously packed up to go by water, and defended from the weather by a curious machine

covered with glass. The plant was about five feet high, and an inch in diameter at the stem, and was in full foliage, with both green and ripe fruit; it was reviewed in the river with great attention and curiosity by several members of the Academy of Sciences, and was afterwards conducted to the royal garden at Marly, under the care of the king's professor of botany.

In 1718 the Dutch colony at Surinam began first to plant coffee; and in 1722 M. de la Motte Aigron, governor of Cayenne, having business at Surinam, contrived by an artifice to bring away a plant from thence, which in the year 1725 had produced many thousands. In 1727, the French perceiving that this acquisition might be of great advantage in their other colonies, conveyed to Martinico some of the plants, from whence it most probably spread to the neighbouring islands; for in 1732 it was cultivated in Jamaica, and an act passed to encourage its growth in that island. Thus was laid the foundation of a most extensive and beneficial trade to the European settlements in the West Indies.

(To be concluded in our next.)

MANUFACTURE OF ROPES AND SACKING FROM SHEEP'S WOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN your last number I have read a paper recommending as much as possible the adoption of *iron* for hemp in the use of chains instead of ropes; since reading of which I have accidentally opened a volume of the Transactions of the Society of Arts, giving an account of a manufacture of *ropes* and *sacking* from *sheep's wool*, to answer the purpose of similar articles made from hemp, by George Whitworth, Esq. and as it is deserving of attention, I have transcribed the article for an introduction in your Miscellany, with such comments as are attached thereto.

Mr. Whitworth thinks that woollen ropes and sacking might be substituted for those articles which are now manufactured from hemp, in many instances, with both individual and national advantage. Worsted ropes have been tried for agricultural purposes, and found fully to answer the expectation that was entertained respecting them. Traces and plough lines, after having been in constant use for three months, did not appear worse than they were at first; and waggoners

preferred ropes of this kind for binding loads of hay and corn, as those were carried home in a more regular and even state which were bound with them than others which were fastened with hempen ropes: they did not become stiff by being wet and dried again, as ropes made of hemp do. Mr. W. also thinks that their elasticity will render them proper for the breeching of guns, and of being used in running rigging in particular situations. A rope of this kind was used in turning a cylinder from the axis of a water-wheel, and was found to wear longer than any one of hemp had done in a similar situation. A worsted rope 24 feet nine inches long, and three and three-tenth inches in circumference, the weight of which was 8 lbs. 3 oz. supported a weight of one ton thirteen hundred, three quarters and sixteen pounds, but was broken by the addition of 32 lbs. more. The expence of ropes made from combed wool is stated to be about 3*d.* per lb. more than those manufactured from hemp, but this will be doubly compensated by the value of the old materials, which are capable of being manufactured again, and which are worth nearly two-fifths of the original wool.

Sacking made from wool answers very well for bags used by farmers and corn-factors, and is very little dearer than hempen sacking; and Mr. W. conceives that it might be used with advantage for the bottom of beds; and he states, on the authority of naval men, that it will make good hammocks, estimating the raw materials at 84*l.* per ton, the following comparison of both their new and old value is given:—

17 oz. hemp, worth (new)----13*d.* old----1*d.*

12 oz. wool, worth (new)----12*d.* old----4*d.*

With respect to the advantages to be derived from this substitute for hemp, Mr. W. observes, that "wool used upon my plan will furnish employment to manufacturers, who are now in great need; it will relieve the growers of long wool, by taking an article at a fair price, which must otherwise remain a drug upon their hands, and it will give new life and vigour to our internal commerce."

However, whilst we are pointing out the advantages of this new substitute, it is but justice to examine on the other side the question. In some cases the strength, in others the elasticity of a rope is the most desirable property; in the former of these qualities, the kind of ropes just mentioned have been found to be somewhat inferior to those made from hemp. Mr. Chapman, in his Treatise on the Manufacture and Duration of Cordage, has stated an experiment which he made on a woollen rope, and from which he concludes that its strength was only equal to one-third of that of a good hempen rope of the same weight, and about two-thirds of such white ropes as are usually made in the

interior of the country; the circumference of this rope was 1. 8 inches, and its length 24 inches, which increased to more than 37 before it broke, which it did when stretched by a weight of 7. 7 cwt. when, by the sudden re-action, its length returned to 26¼ inches. The experiment, however, shews the great elasticity of this kind of rope, and therefore proves its fitness for purposes in which this quality is chiefly wanting. Sacking of this kind will probably answer for hammocks, provided it will bear painting as well as the cloth made of hemp; but not for the bottoms of beds in general. A light sail-cloth we think might be made of this kind of wool, which, from its elasticity, would be preferable for small vessels to that in use at present; and light woollen stuffs of this nature might also be used for a variety of common purposes, for which they would, in some respects, be preferable to hempen or linen cloth. The quantity of hemp which is annually manufactured into tarred cordage in the united kingdom has been stated at 30,000 tons! and Mr. W. thinks that 15,000 tons of long wool might be dedicated to this purpose.

Salford, Manchester. G. G.

ON COMMERCIAL TELEGRAPHS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

Sir,

I HAVE observed in your Magazine for July last a notice, among other remarkable occurrences, of a commercial telegraph about to be established on the improved plan of one Colonel Lindsay, and I have been anxiously waiting ever since for some further account thereof, either noticed by you or some other work, but lo! nothing has appeared.

My mind having often turned upon the above subject since your notice, I have been seriously led to imagine the execution thereof is not so vague as seems at first appearance; and from the daily improvements in the different arts and sciences, I trust that telegraphic communications from place to place will as far outstrip the present post, at no distant period, as the present mail coach does the common method of travelling as practised at the commencement of the last century.

If we look back to distant ages we shall find that even the *telegraph* s not a new invention, it being only a modern application and im-

provement, and known to the ancients at a much earlier period than many of my readers may have conceived.

When it is considered that the object proposed is to obtain an intelligible figurative language, which may be distinguished at a distance, and by which the obvious delay in the dispatch of orders, or information by messenger or by post may be avoided, particularly beneficial to trade and business, the nature of the work requires us to present, in the first instance, all the useful and interesting information in our power relative to the history and origin of this improveable instrument, and afterwards we will notice some of the different ways and means by which it might be rendered mercantile in the method proposed in your former number. As the name is descriptive of a contrivance by which information is almost instantaneously conveyed to a considerable distance; whenever we find a circumstance of this nature recorded, it is natural to conclude that it was effected by some agent possessing similar qualities.

It is generally regarded as a well authenticated fact, that the burning of Troy was known in Greece a very short time after it happened, and long before it was possible for any person to have arrived there from the scene of conflagration. One of the Greek plays opens with a scene in which a watchman descends from a tower in Greece with the news that Troy was taken; expressing himself thus:—"I have been looking out these ten years to send when that would happen, and this night it is done." A proof that the ancients possessed some mode of conveying information very quickly to a great distance, but what that mode was it is not so easy to determine. When the Chinese courtiers travel to distant parts of the empire, signals are made by means of fire from one day's journey to another, in order that preparations may be made for their reception. In more barbarous nations it was customary to give the alarm of war by fires lighted on the tops of hills; and Polybius styles the instruments used by the ancients for communicating intelligence in this manner *pyrsiæ*, because those signals were made by means of fire; a new method of accomplishing this object was invented by Cleoxenus, and much improved by Polybius; he divided the Greek alphabet into five parts, and expressed the letters on boards in five columns; the order in which these letters were to be taken was signified by torches held up in certain positions previously agreed upon by the parties.

Neither this last mentioned method, nor any other known to the ancients, however, appears to have been carried into general use; nor have we any account of any modern invention for the same purpose,

previous to the Marquis of Worcester's, contained in his *Century of Invention*, published in 1663; in this work he affirms that he had discovered "a method by which, at a window, as far as the eye can discover black from white, a man may hold discourse with his correspondent without noise made or notice taken, being according to occasion given or means afforded *ex re nata*, and no need of provision beforehand; though much better if foreseen, and course taken by mutual consent of parties." This means of correspondence he also asserts to have been rendered so perfect that it could be put in practice "by night as well as by day, though as dark as pitch is black." On 21st March, 1684, Dr. Hooke, so much celebrated for his mechanical genius, delivered a discourse to the Royal Society on a method of communicating one's mind at a great distance. In this discourse he asserted the possibility of conveying intelligence from one place to another at the distance of 50 or 100 miles and upwards "in as short a time almost as a man could write what he would have sent." The whole of this ingenious paper was published in Derham's Collection of Dr. Hooke's Experiments and observations, and from which it appears that his contrivance was little inferior to several that have been lately proposed for the same purpose. William Amontons, an ingenious French philosopher, about the year 1702, likewise invented a method of conveying information from one place to another by signals; and, it is probable, without any knowledge of what had been previously advanced on the same subject by the Marquis of Worcester or Dr. Hooke, as his method seems to be much inferior to that pointed out by the latter gentleman.

None of these inventions, however, were applied to purposes of utility before the French revolution, when M. Chappe, towards the end of 1793, invented an instrument of a similar nature, and gave it the name of *Telegraph*; whether or not he knew any thing of the invention of Dr. Hooke, or of Amonton's, his own countryman, it is impossible to ascertain. The first chain of telegraphs formed a communication between the Louvre, at Paris, and Lisle, a distance of about 35 leagues, near which town the French army then was. The first description of this instrument is said to have been brought from Paris to Frankfort sur Maine, by a former member of the parliament at Bordeaux, who had seen that which was erected at the mountain of Belville, near Paris. Two working models were made of it at Frankfort, and sent by Mr. W. Playfair to the Duke of York, and hence the plan and alphabet of the machine came to England. Chappe's contrivance con-

sisted chiefly of an upright post, bearing a transverse bar of about ten or twelve feet in length, and nine inches broad, moveable about a pivot in its centre; to each extremity of this bar, an arm of about three feet long was attached by a moveable joint; by means of these three the combination of movement was very extensive, simple, and easy to be performed. A number of arbitrary positions were fixed to denote the letters of the alphabet, and these being always made precisely in the same manner by means of the mechanism employed to work the arms, intelligence was conveyed with astonishing accuracy and rapidity; in consequence of this information various experiments were made in this country, and a communication by means of a chain of signals was soon established from the admiralty office to the coast; the telegraph adopted for this purpose consisted of six octagonal boards, each moveable about an axis, and capable of being placed either vertically or horizontally, so as to be either visible or invisible at the nearest station at pleasure. These six boards are capable of exhibiting 36 changes by the most simple and easy mode of working them, and by these, the letters of the alphabet, and the numeral cyphers are denoted. This telegraph, however, was by no means considered as being free from objections and inconveniences, and various contrivances for remedying these have been invented since that period; to g ve an account of all these would greatly exceed our limits; we shall therefore content ourselves with mentioning a few of the principal of them: Mr. John Garnet prepared a very simple and ingenious instrument, which consisted merely of a bar or plank, moveable about a centre, round which a circle was described having the letters of the alphabet and figures depicted round its circumference. An index which corresponded with the bar enabled the operator to set it to any letter or figure he wished to communicate. A wire was fixed across the tube of the telescope used by the observer which was to be brought to coincide or be parallel to the bar, then the letter or figure to be communicated was denoted by a small index at the eye-end of the telescope, which contained a circle similar to that encompassing the centre of motion of the bar. Another ingenious improvement was proposed in the Gentleman's Magazine; it consisted of a semi-circle of 12 feet radius; this was to be properly elevated, divided into 24 equal parts, and each of these perforated with a circular opening of six inches in diameter. These apertures beginning from the left denote the letters of the alphabet, except K J V X and Q, which were omitted; the remainder of the holes were reserved for signals. The communications to be made in the day were pointed

out by means of an index, and in the night by lamps. None of the preceding telegraphs, however, appear to exceed either in simplicity, cheapness, or facility of working, that in use at the admiralty.

It is to be observed that two methods have generally been adopted in communicating telegraphic information: in the one, each signal represents a single letter; in the other a complete sentence. This last has generally been thought to possess an advantage over the other in point of expedition, but it is only partial in its application; however, this difficulty has been in part remedied by an improvement by Major Charles Hardy (vide Transactions of the Society of Arts, vol. 26). The major's telegraph is intended to express numbers, to which words may be referred at pleasure, and it consists of nine bars or radii, answering to the nine digits, and of four polygonal or concentrical bars, which intersect the radii, and beginning with the outside one represents units, tens, hundreds, and thousands. Over each of these bars an index traverses, which marks the number of thousands, of hundreds, tens, and units, as far as ten thousand.

It it were required to represent the number 9202, the index on the circle of thousands must be moved to the radius 9, that on the circle of hundreds to the radius 2, and as there are no tens, the index on the circle of units must be placed on the radius 2, and these combined will represent the required number. But as 10,000 is not sufficient to express all the words in the English language, two square boards are added in the corners, one representing 10,000, and the other 20,000, and when both are exhibited together they denote 30,000, which, added to the number that the other part of the apparatus is capable of expressing, affords a ready means of representing any number not exceeding 40,000, which is many thousands more than there are words in the English language. The signals are worked by means of a wheel and rack, put in motion by a winch, except the two at the corners, which are fixed on iron bars, and made to revolve a quarter round, by levers connected with cross bars, by means of ropes or wires.

To prevent the necessity of inspecting the signals, an index which revolves with the signal board, points out the number on a dial-plate that it designates, so that the telegraph may be worked correctly within doors. The signal-boards are secured at any particular place by means of a bolt adapted to the purpose.

Major Hardy remarks that the number may be easily carried to a greater extent if necessary, but he conceives that 40,000 is sufficient for every purpose. All the words in Entick's Dictionary amount to about 25,000, which may be numbered in regular succession, and then

they may be forwarded as fast as they can be looked for in the dictionary.

As I have perhaps exceeded the limits of your Magazine with the present letter, I shall give my remarks on the application thereof for commercial and other general purposes in a future letter.

ARISTIDES.*

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF CANADA.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

From Gray's "Letters from Canada, written during the Years 1806, 1807, 1808."

THE population of Canada, at the time it came into the possession of the British in 1759-60, amounted to 73,600 souls, as appears from General Murray's report to the British government, immediately after the conquest. At that time the extensive country now called Upper Canada was not inhabited by any Europeans. At present the two Canadas contain at least 300,000 inhabitants; of these, Lower Canada contains about two-thirds. The descendants of the Old Canadians constitute at least nine-tenths of the population of Lower Canada. They profess the Roman Catholic religion, and are allowed the use of the Old Canadian, or rather French laws, agreeable to the principles laid down in the *Coutume de Paris.*

In Upper Canada, the population amounts to about 100,000. These are all British, at least they speak English, and are governed entirely by the laws of England, both in civil and criminal matters; and in questions relative to real property, as well as in questions relative to personal property. The lands are held by the English tenures, and the courts of justice are regulated agreeably to the forms of the respective courts in England. Niagara was formerly the capital of Upper Canada, but about twelve years ago York was laid out for a town, and the seat of government transferred to it, and it is already of a considerable size.

From the preceding statement of the population, it is evident that the

* Our correspondent has omitted to notice the very ingenious telegraph presented by Capt. Keith Maxwell to the Society of Arts in 1808, for which he received the gold medal. Its simplicity, yet comprehension, place it first on the list. It is much approved of, and pretty generally used in the navy: it is also well adapted for land service.—ED.

increase in Lower Canada for the last fifty years has been very great; it has, in fact, nearly tripled. In Upper Canada the increase has been very rapid, as several years elapsed after the conquest before any part of Upper Canada was settled or cultivated. Thirty years ago, Upper Canada was nearly a continued forest;—that a population of 100,000 should in that space of time accumulate, is a proof that the country and climate are propitious. Indeed, it is generally allowed that the climate of Upper Canada and its soil are superior to those of Lower Canada.

The country is in general more level and low than the neighbourhood of Quebec and Montreal. The waters of the immense lakes have perhaps narrowed their beds, and left the surrounding country dry, at a later period than has been the case in Lower Canada, where hills and mountains and rapid rivers abound, and where the nutritious parts of the soil may have been carried off. The climate of Upper Canada is temperate, and friendly to vegetation. The warmth of the air will facilitate the decomposition of all vegetable and animal matter, which may be in a state of decay, and in the course of time an accumulation of soil will take place. When the forests are cleared away, and the plough and harrow have performed their functions, the same causes which promoted the growth of the large hardy oak, the stately pine, and the matted thicket, will raise fine crops of wheat, and luxuriant artificial grasses.

In all new countries, such as the Canadas, population must increase much faster than in old countries, because the production of food for man is much easier; and as their situation precludes the possibility of their indulging in what are called the luxuries of life, their principal occupation will naturally be the production of food. They will clear their lands of wood, they will sow and reap; next year more will be cleared, sown, and reaped, until the grain, &c. produced exceed the wants of the family. The surplus becomes an object of merchandize; their disposable capital increases; and it is employed either in increasing production by cultivating more land, or in ameliorating what is already produced. Mills are erected; wheat converted into flour; flour into biscuit; cattle are fattened and prepared for market. This accumulation of the real wealth of the country is the natural cause of an increase of population.

Besides the operation of this cause, the Canadas owe much of their increase of population to emigrations from the United States of America, and from Europe. These emigrations, to a greater or less extent,

take place every year. The emigrants generally prefer settling in Upper rather than in Lower Canada, as well those from the United States as those from Europe. There are many reasons for the preference given to Upper Canada: the soil and climate are better, and lands are cheaper and more easily procured; the tenures are better understood, and better liked than the French tenures in Lower Canada; the great mass of the people speak English, and have English habits, neither of which are to be found in Lower Canada. In case of a dispute with your neighbour, the cause is tried in an English court of justice, and in a language you understand; which is not the case in Lower Canada. In short, those causes will continue to draw to Upper Canada a great augmentation to the natural increase of the population and wealth—whilst the *Canadian French population* will only increase in the ordinary ratio.

In proportion to the increase of population is the demand for manufactures, and for articles of foreign importation. The increase of industry and wealth gives a greater fund to pay for the productions of other countries. That this has been the case in Canada is clearly proved by the gradual increase of her foreign trade.

Great Britain is at a considerable regular expence in supporting the garrisons and military establishments of Canada; besides the value of the presents given annually to the Indians, and the amount of the salaries of a variety of people employed in what is called the Indian department, consisting of superintendants, inspectors, agents, &c. The goods given to the Indians annually are of considerable value, and consist of clothes, muskets, powder and ball, trinkets, hardware, &c.—Yet Canada is well deserving the pains and cost necessary to preserve it. She consumes our manufactures to a considerable amount; she gives employment annually to about 200 sail of merchantmen, and about fourteen hundred seamen; she furnishes Newfoundland with supplies of flour, bread, &c.; and she supplies our West India islands with a considerable quantity of lumber, staves, puncheon-packs, hoops, horses, and salt-fish of a variety of kinds. She supplies Great Britain with wheat occasionally; and what is likely to be of great importance, the forests of Canada will be found equal to supplying the dock-yards with masts and yards for the largest men of war in the navy, and, indeed, for vessels of all sorts, to almost any amount; besides a great abundance of oak, and other ship-timber of a variety of species. Our coopers, too, may be supplied with staves to any amount, and of as good quality as usually come from Hamburgh, Stettin, and Dantzic.

Furs and Peltries exported from Canada for Britain, on an average of three Years, ending 1805.

		£.	s.	d.
Martin	23,170 at 4*s.* each	4,634	0	0
Beaver	99,076 average 1½ lb. each at 14*s.* per lb.	92,470	18	8
Otter	17,649 at 17*s.* 6*d.*	33,091	17	6
Minks	11,687 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	1,460	17	6
Fishes	5,657 at 8*s.* 6*d.*	2,404	4	6
Foxes	8,636 at 12*s.* 0*d.*	5,181	12	0
Bear and cub	20,074 at 40*s.* 0*d.*	40,148	0	0
Deer	223,290 at 5*s.* 0*d.*	55,822	10	0
Racoon	151,710 at 2*s.* 0*d.*	15,171	0	0
Musk-wash	79,650 at 1*s.* 2*d.*	4,646	5	0
Cat, cased and open	12,221 at 7*s.* 6*d.*	4,582	7	6
Wolf	6,425 at 8*s.* 0*d.*	2,570	0	0
Elk	1,032 at 10*s.* 0*d.*	516	0	0
Woolvereen	1,250 at 5*s.* 0*d.*	312	10	0
Hare, rabbit, ermin, and squirrel	3,062 at 0*s.* 6*d.*	76	11	0
		£263,088	13	8

Where there is so extensive a line of boundary as that which separates Canada from the United States, it is not to be supposed that strict attention will be paid to the law making St. John's the only legal channel for goods into Lower Canada. Smuggling to a great extent is carried on. Of the articles not enumerated, I am well informed that there are at least 20,000 pieces of white cotton, at about 17*s.* 6*d.* a piece; a large quantity of blue cotton, silk handkerchiefs, East India checks and stripes, East India silks, French cambrics and crapes, besides groceries and a variety of other articles. I am assured that these and other non-enumerated articles do not amount annually to less than 100,000*l.*; and, therefore, the whole imports from the United States into Canada must amount annually to 175,546*l.* leaving a balance against Canada of 10,196*l.*

This balance the Americans carry out of Canada in cash. There are a great variety of coins in circulation in Canada: we have the Spanish, French, American, and British, gold and silver coins. The Spanish dollar is in most general use, and these the Americans prefer, because they generally bear a premium in New-York and Boston, to

the amount sometimes of two per cent. The Americans want them for their China trade.

If the Americans by carrying cash out of Canada create a scarcity, both the government and the merchants will find a difficulty in procuring it. The government wants large sums for paying the troops, and the expences of the civil department; the merchants want money to pay for the produce they purchase for exportation. They draw bills on England, which they sell to the holders of cash. Now, when the holders of cash find that money is much wanted, they will give it to those who, for 100*l.* bill on England, will take the smallest amount of cash from them. Payments are made in the currency of the country. *Sterling* is 11¼ per cent. more valuable; this is the *par of exchange*.

In New-York and Boston the exchange on Britain is in general high, that is to say, bills on London bear a premium, sometimes as much as eight per cent. For a 100*l.* bill you get currency corresponding to 108*l.* Cash is more plentiful than bills. In Canada it is quite the reverse; and when the exchange is, in consequence, low, it becomes extremely advantageous for the holders of cash, in Boston and New-York, to send it to Canada for purchasing of bills (which they get at a discount), rather than purchase bills at home, which are sold at a premium. Thus the cash carried out of Canada by one set of men is brought back again by another set. In consequence of which, the exchange in Canada approaches *par*, and the circulating medium regains its level.

ON THE CONDUCT AND INFLUENCE OF THE FRENCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN contemplating the subjugation of the greatest part of the continent under the sway of the Corsican tyrant, we find that all his conquests are effected by means of his conscriptions, which he supports at the expence of those countries which fall under his dominion, who soon establish an implicit obedience to *The Code Napoleon*.

One of the greatest objects of his arbitrary power is to new-model all the universities and public seminaries of the different conquered countries, by which he imagines he shall realize the dreams of Lewis

XIV, and bring up the rising generation, not only with *French manners* but with *French ideas*. The following anecdotes illustrative thereof were related to the writer by a student from the university of Gottingen, lately arrived in this country.

This university was first founded by George II. in the year 1734, and has acquired a very distinguished reputation, from the many eminent characters who have been furnished from thence; but now the military life, discipline, and manner form the most conspicuous feature.

The students rise to prayers by the beat of the reveille, and are summoned to their meals by the sound of the trumpet. The Royal German Society, which formed a considerable part of this university, is now no more; and the German language and books are forbid, and supplanted by those of France.

The studies are strictly confined to military or naval tactics, as the arts, sciences, and philosophy are entirely discarded.

The library called *Bulowcan*, and which was justly reckoned one of the most valuable in all Europe, has been examined by his literary censors, and all those containing any national or political sentiments, which might either call to mind the original national character, or bring to remembrance their degradation, are carefully destroyed.

Indeed this country appears for a length of time, even under the old monarchy, to have been assisting in the gradual extinction of their original character, by their almost general adoption of the French language, instead of the mother-tongue; and it may now appear as a judgment thereon. And the only periodical paper published in Gottingen in the German is now substituted for one in French.

The following anecdotes, of which the relater was an eye-witness a few days before he left the university, will also shew the method of government of that town under the gens d'armes.

One of the students was taking an airing on horseback through the town in the middle of the day, and happening to pass one of the gens d'armes on a gallop, the French horseman immediately called out for him to slacken his pace and not ride so fast, which being disregarded by the mounted student, a pistol was instantly snapped at him, and a pursuit took place through the streets, the alarm having brought upwards of 30 men, soldiers, to join therein; the scholar, knowing the disposition of his followers, and alarmed for his safety, jumped from his horse, and endeavoured to take refuge in some buildings, but he was presently dragged forth from his hiding-place, and carried before the *ministre de police*, and he was condemned to a rigorous imprisonment.

For this *courageous* act of the gens d'armes, the person, a private, who took the student into custody, was instantly *honoured* with a commission!!! Meritorious deed!!!

ARGUS.

ON AN EXACT ADMEASUREMENT OF FLUIDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

AMONG the improvements which the Royal College of Physicians of London have introduced into their recent edition of the Pharmacopœia, is the more exact admeasurement of drops, (or minims, as they are now to be called, from the Latin word *minima*, as being the least measurable portion of a fluid) which have hitherto been generally considered equal, when dropped from equal and similar surfaces, though, from the different density of fluids, they are found to vary in proportion of three to one. This source of error the college have endeavoured to obviate, by adopting a graduated tube, open at both ends, which, when immersed in the fluid to the necessary depth, is to be withdrawn, by placing the finger on the uper orifice, by which means a column of fluid is suspended equal in length to the portion of the tube immersed.

But to this instrument (which may be called a *minimometer*, or more corectly *stagonometer*, from *stagon*, a drop, and *metra*, measure) which is sufficiently accurate for the admeasurement of equal quantities of any fluid, there are several objections:—In the first place, it does not provide for the difference in density of the fluid to be measured, though ten of these minims of water are equal to twenty of laudanum, and of most other tinctures, and to thirty of alcohol or æther. In the next place, it will occasion considerable waste and trouble, requiring always that the external adherent layer of fluid be wiped off the tube to prevent inaccuracy, and that the bottle, into which it is to be immerged, contain a depth of fluid equal to the height required in the *stagonometer*. Lastly, it will not be so accurate as might be wished, in consequence of the inherent stratum of fluid lining the internal surface of the tube, which, from the diameter being necessarily very small, will bear a considerable proportion to the fluid discharged.

The first of these objections might be obviated by adopting a set of tubes, having their scales respectively graduated for æther, proof spirit,

and water.—The other difficulties require the substitution of a different contrivance.

Either a set of glass tubes of a convenient form and diameter (so as readily to admit the fluid to be poured in) open at each end, but drawn to a point at one end, in which there should be an orifice sufficient to permit the escape of one drop only at a time, may be adopted; or, which is still more simple, a set of phials, each having an angular spout; the acuteness of the angle regulating in this case the size of the drop, as the smallness of the opening, and the tapering of the point, determine it in the other.—The fluid in these tubes is suspended on the same principle as in those recommended by the college, and the stillicidium may be arrested at pleasure, by pressing with the finger on the upper orifice. Should the phial be preferred, and it be desired to have the flow of the drops regulated, it may be easily accomplished by having a ground stopper for each bottle, with a groove on each side of it, of a determinate form, which must be always turned towards the spout of the phial at the time of using; and, to prevent the evaporation of the fluid, when not wanted, it would be convenient to have a double stopper, ground out of the same piece of glass, resembling two truncated cones joined at their bases, in one of which the regulating groove is to be formed.

It would have been an improvement in the correctness of the dispensing part of the pharmacy, if the college had determined the capacity of spoons for medical uses; which, from the inconsistency of fashion, are scarcely ever commensurate, and are, no doubt, frequently the occasion of great inaccuracy.—Any ingenious silversmith might construct a couple of medical silver spoons, one exactly containing half a fluid ounce of distilled water; the other one fluid drachm, or sixty minims.—These ought to have the handles somewhat differently formed from the common spoons, and to have the measure of each expressed at full length on some convenient part.

It would be expedient too, that more attention should be paid to the relative ponderancy of the troy and avoirdupois weights, which are not unfrequently used indiscriminately, though the medical pound weighs less by two ounces and five drachms than the averdupois, while the medical ounce exceeds the other by forty-two grains and a half.

PHILO.

ON THE ADOPTION OF THE COLOUR OF BLACK FOR MOURNING.

From the German of Kotzebue.

WHY is black worn for mourning? This colour was not always employed for the purpose, and indeed ought not to continue to be so chosen. The truly mourning widow or orphan requires a cheering spectacle, and to affected sorrow dissimulation ought not to be rendered easy.

The mother of St. Louis was called the white queen, because she wore white mourning for Louis VIII. the same was done by the females of ancient Sparta and Rome. In Spain this practice continued till the death of the prince Don Juan, in 1498. The Chinese also wear white for mourning; the Turks, on the contrary, blue or violet; the Egyptians yellow, and the Ethiopians grey.

Considerable pains have been taken to explain the signification of these different colours: white is said to signify purity, and yellow to be a representation of withered leaves; grey denotes the earth, in which the dead is interred; blue the felicity which they enjoy in a better world; black the privation of light; violet (a mixture of blue and black) combines the sorrow of the survivors with their wishes for the happiness of the deceased. Such interpretations it is not difficult to invent; and if any nation had chosen to wear red for mourning, it would probably have been said that the custom was introduced after a great battle, in which much blood had been spilled. Indeed, it would not be amiss to advise the Germans, for this reason, to wear no other colour than red for mourning, especially since such torrents of German blood are shed, and that, in part, by Germans. Would to God that we had a colour for infamy also! The clergy indeed should first set the example, and lay aside the disagreeable black colour, which, instead of inspiring their flock with confidence, only fills them with fear; and, so far from affording consolation to the sick, only gives birth to sinister presentiments. At the time of St. Chrysostom the clergy wore white garments; as they ought to be the angels of God on earth, they ought consequently to dress in white, it is the devils alone that are black.

The priests of Isis and many others were clothed in white. The angel at the holy sepulchre appeared in a dress as white as snow. To be sure ghosts are represented as being white too; as, for instance, the

bailiff in Don Juan, whose nodding throws Pedrillo into such a terrible fright; but there is no rule without an exception.

Considered in another point of view, with a reference to political economy, it would be salutary to proscribe the use of the black colour, for it consumes and decays the wool, deprives cloth of its durability, renders it less warm in winter, but in summer absorbs all the rays of the sun, and produces intolerable heat. To gain over the ladies to my side, I may add, that few of them look well in black; not even those of fair complexions, though they imagine they do. Black causes a good figure to shrink in appearance, whereas white seems to increase the stature. This is an additional reason why the clergy should prefer white; for their precepts would make more profound impression if their figure were imposing, and inspired, not fear, but reverence. Full well, however, I know that all I can advance will be thrown away, unless some French female has the complaisance to take my part. Anne of Bretagne, the widow of Charles VIII. was the first person who wore black for mourning; and since that period the obedient inhabitants of the rest of Europe have imitated her example. I have no doubt that if a Parisian widow would take it into her head to follow the corpse of her husband dressed in white, a month afterwards the custom of wearing white for mourning would be general. It is singular that man has selected a colour for sorrow, but not for joy. It appears as if he designed to make a parade of the former sentiment, but was ashamed of the latter. As there is a colour which cries to every person who meets us, "Look, we are sorrowful!" why is there not one to apprize them that we are joyful? The latter would, I am sure, sooner excite sympathy. We are glad to get out of the way of the mourner, but the merry are every where welcome.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE MINERALOGY OF THE SOUTH-WEST PART OF STAFFORDSHIRE.

BY JAMES KEIR, ESQ. F.R.S.

(*Continued from page* 62.)

Of the Strata or Measures between the Surface of the Ground and the Coal.

HAVING given a general survey of the coal country, I shall now proceed to a more detailed account of the strata and substances under ground; their regular situation; their irregularities of position, fractures, or fissures; and whatever circumstances may seem to deserve

most notice, in a mineralogical view. The numbers and thickness of the measures above the coal are so various and different in different places, that they scarcely deserve to be considered as regular strata, and have nothing of that uniformity which the beds of coal have, which are similar, at least in a very considerable degree, in thickness, quality, and regular position, over the whole extent of the country. The irregularity in the thickness and number of measures above the coal, occasions a great difference in the depth of the pits in different places. In some places the coal has been got at the surface of the ground in open quarries, and in other fields the finer kind of clay, called *fire-clay*, *pipe-clay*, and *pot-clay*, from its power of resisting heat, and its fitness for making tobacco-pipes and glass-house pots, are the next in order, with regard to uniformity and of thickness and position. As to the other intervening masses of *rock*, *bind*, *clunch*, and especially those upper earths which consist of red and yellow particles, they vary so much, and so irregularly, that they frequently differ, not only in the same field, but even at the distance of a few yards, and therefore no general account can be given of their order, number, or thickness. The kinds, however, of the measures, are generally the same throughout the coal country, and of these a notion may be formed from the following list of measures, found in drying a coal-pit in Tivedal colliery, in the parish of Rowley, 1797.

	yds.	ft.	in.
1 Soil	0	1	0
2 Brick clay	1	2	6
3 Brown coloured roach*	2	0	0
4 Blue clay	0	1	0
5 Red coloured roach	1	2	0
6 Rock, with coal interspersed†	1	2	0

* Roach is a ferruginous earth or clay, differently coloured, or veined red and yellow. It seems to me to consist of the decomposed particles of the basaltic rock, called here *Rowley rag*, of which the Rowley hills are formed, with other alluvial matter.

† The rock, so called from its hardness, is white, and consists of a mixture of silicious and argillaceous earths; which earths are mixed in different proportions. The rock has the largest proportion of silicious earth. Next to this are the rock binds, which have more argillaceous earth, and are consequently softer than the rock. Then the clunch binds have still less silicious earth. And lastly, clunch has the least of this latter earth, and is consequently the softest. The clunch and clunch-binds shiver into flakes when exposed to the weather. The rock-binds, and still better the rock, retain their texture. The rock is subject to cracks or fissures, through which

	yds.	ft.	in.
7 Clunch, and iron-stone in it*	2	2	3
8 Smutt†	0	0	10
9 White clunch	1	0	3
10 Grey clunch	2	1	3
11 Red wild stuff	13	2	6
12 Greenish rock	1	1	0
13 Red wild stuff	2	1	6
14 Binds with balls of gray rock	3	2	0
15 Wild stuff	5	1	8
16 Rocky black stuff	0	1	0
17 Smutt	0	0	3
18 Black rocky stuff	2	2	0
19 Kind clunch, with iron-stone	3	2	2
20 Clunch beds	4	0	9
21 Soft clunch	2	2	9
22 Coal, called the two-foot coal‡	0	1	6
23 Fire-clay‖	1	1	0
24 Fine clunch	4	0	0
25 Rock	0	2	0
26 Rock-binds	0	1	6
27 Parting which emitted inflammable damp§	0	0	3

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the water flows; and it is chiefly from these fissures in rocks that the water issues. Thin laminæ of coal are often laid horizontally in the rock, and frequently there is thin coal in the form of large broad leaves of aquatic plants, running in all directions through the rock.

* Clunch is a smooth, soft, earthy matter, which, on exposure to the weather, falls into shivers or flakes; it evidently consists chiefly of argillaceous earth, and contains more or less of the silicious. I have not analyzed it, and therefore do not know more of its contents. Sometimes it has a reddish or yellowish colour, and is then called by the colliers, *wild*; but when it is of its proper bluish or grayish colour, it is said to be *kind*; by which epithets the colliers express their observation, that coal is generally found accompanied with clunch and other measures; they are of white, black, bluish, and gray colours, but very seldom with such as are red or yellow. The former colours are therefore said to be kind, and the latter are called wild, as being irregular, or accidental. Clunch generally contains balls of iron-stone.

† Smutt is a mixture of coal and clunch.

‡ This thin coal (called two-foot coal, though seldom thicker than eighteen inches) is the first regular bed of coal. It is too thin to be of any use.

‖ Fire-clay, called in some places pipe-clay, from its having been made into tobacco-pipes, for which purpose it is not now used, not being white enough.

§ A parting is generally a small quantity of clunch, or soft earth, that separates

	yds.	ft.	in.
28 Rock binds	2	1	0
29 Kind clunch	0	1	0
30 Broach coal*	1	0	9
31 Black clunch	2	1	6
32 Coal	0	1	3
33 Penny-earth, with iron-stone†	2	1	0
34 Clunch-binds	8	2	0
35 Clunch with iron-stone	0	2	9
36 Rock-binds	5	1	0
37 Clunch, with iron-stone	4	2	0
38 Rock-binds	5	1	0
39 Strong rock	1	1	0
40 Rock, with laminæ of coal	1	1	0
41 Strong rock	1	1	0
42 Clunch parting	0	0	10
43 Chance coal‡	0	0	9
44 Clunch-binds	1	1	0
45 Rock, or rock-binds	2	2	10
46 Clunch and iron-stone	0	2	9
47 Black batt§	2	0	0
48 Clunch coal	0	0	10
49 Catch earth (a clunch)	0	2	9
50 Black batt	0	0	7
51 Main coal	10	1	6

Main Coal.

The main coal consists of divisions, and indeed may be considered as a number of beds, differing regularly in quality and thickness, and

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the more considerable beds from each other. From these interstices between the strata or divisions of the coal itself, generally proceeds the inflammable gas, or air, that incommodes the miners.

* Broach coal, is a coal of very good quality, which sometimes is got, but generally neglected, not being sufficiently thick to furnish a quantity of big coals large enough to render the working of it profitable.

† The measure called penny-earth is a clunch which contains a considerable quantity of balls or nodules of iron-stone, for the sake of which pits are sunk in the neighbourhood of Wednesbury.

‡ Chance coal is a name given to accidental masses of coal, which are not regular strata.

§ A smooth schistus, rendered black, probably, from its vicinity to the coal.

separated from each other by very thin partitions, which in some places are wanting, so that it has been mentioned as a single bed of coal of extraordinary thickness. These divisions or beds are distinguished by peculiar names, which, together with their thickness, are given below.

The Names of the Beds of the Main Coal.

	Thickness. yds.	ft.	in.
1 Roof-floor, called by Dr. Plot, top-floor	1	1	0
Parting, about four inches soft and dark earth.			
2 Top-slipper or speris. By Plot, over-slipper	0	2	2
3 Jays	0	2	0
White stone, called Patchel, one inch.			
4 Lambs	0	1	0
5 Tow, or tough, or Kitts, or heath	0	1	6
6 Benches	0	1	6
7 Bassils, or corus	0	1	6
Foot-coal parting, sometimes only.			
8 Foot-coal, or bottom slipper, or fine coal	0	1	8
John coal parting, one inch.			
9 John coal, or slipps, or veins	1	0	0
Hard stone, ten inches, sometimes less.			
10 Stone coal, or long coal	1	1	0
11 Sawyer, or springs	0	1	6
12 Slipper	0	2	6
Humphrey parting.			
13 Humphreys, or bottom-bench, or kid. By Dr. Plot, omfray-floor	0	2	3
Total of the main coal	9	1	7

The coal, including the partings, which are more variable in their thickness than the coal, generally exceeds ten yards. But even the coal varies in the thickness of the several beds in some degree, though it every where preserves the distinction of different beds. A very extraordinary variation occurs in one instance. The two upper beds of the main coal, viz. the roof-floor and top-slipper, separate from the rest of the coal at Bloomfield colliery, and the separation grows wider and wider in a northern direction, till at length these two beds, which, when thus separated, acquire the name of the *flying reed*, crop out to day and are lost; while the lower part of the coal proceeds on to Bilstone, where it consequently has only about the thickness of eight yards.

The interval between the two upper measures, or flying reed, and the lower part of the main coal, is filled up with reft clunch at the place of separation, which clunch assumes a harder texture, and at last is changed to a rock that strikes fire with steel.

Of the Measures below the Main Coal.

The measures which are generally known under the main coal, which in some places are dug for the sake of the iron-stone, and glass-house pot-clay, and sometimes for the vein of coal called heathing coal, are as follows:—

	yds.	ft.	in.
1 Dark clunch, generally about	0	1	6
2 Light-coloured clay, with small round iron-stone called white grains	0	2	6
3 Main iron-stone mine, which is iron-stone balls or nodules, involved in clunch. Of this mine there are three distinct measures	1	0	0
4 Table batt, a smooth level-faced schistus	1	0	0
4 White clay, containing white iron-stone	0	1	6
6 Heathing coal, in three distinct layers	2	0	0

7 Measures of clunch and white rock, to the pot-clay, which is about sixteen or twenty yards below the main coal, at the lye where it is principally got, the clay being there nearer the surface of the ground, and of a better quality than in most other places that have been tried. This is the clay which takes its name from Stourbridge, its nearest town; and from its quality of resisting violent heat without melting, or even losing its strength and form, and consequent fitness for making pots to contain melted glass, is the principal cause of the establishment of a very considerable manufactory of the various kinds of glass, flint, bottle, and window glass, in the vicinity of Stourbridge, and in the town of Dudley.

Nothing is generally known under the above-mentioned measures, the work of the miners never having proceeded further. But an opportunity was given a few years ago of discovering all the intermediate strata between the main coal, and the lime-stone, by the late Lord Dudley and Ward, who ordered a canal to be made from Topton Green, to his lime-quarries in Dudley Castle-hill, which passed under a part of the lime-stone hill. By this very considerable undertaking, all these intermediate strata were cut through as they were cropping

up to the hill, and were observed to lie in the following order and thickness:*

Measures under the Main Coal to the Lime-stone.

	yds.	ft.	in.
1 Clunch and iron-stone	7	0	0
2 Heathing coal	2	0	0
3 Pot-clay	2	0	0
4 Wild measures	9	0	0
5 Good coal	3	0	0
6 Rough spoil	2	0	0
7 Good coal	3	1	0
8 Black measure	2	2	0
9 Coal	5	0	0
10 Wild measures	40	0	0
11 Coal	0	2	0
12 Wild measures	76	2	0
13 Lime-stone	10	0	0
14 Wild measures	38	0	0
15 Lime-stone of the quarry	13	0	0

From the above account, which I have no doubt is near the truth, though perhaps not minutely distinctive in the term of wild measures, it appears that there are under the heathing coal no less than four beds of coal, making in all a thickness of about twelve yards. I have already suggested my opinion that these are the beds of coal which are found and worked in a considerable tract of country that extends northward from Bilstone, Wednesbury, and Darlaston, towards Walsall, and along the Wyerley and Epington canal. My reason for this opinion is, that the main coal rises then towards the north, and crops out at the three towns above-mentioned, Bilstone, Wednesbury, and Darlaston, after which it is no longer found in that direction; but a few miles beyond these towns the thin beds of coal begin to be found rising in the same northern direction, and accordingly give all the indication that the subject admits, that they are continued from below the main coal. The same thin beds have sometimes been found in the interval between the cropping of the main coal and the Dudley lime-stone hills, but are little noticed, as being of small value in com-

* The list of these intermediate strata, between the main coal and the lime-stone, was furnished by Mr. Hurst, agent to Lord Dudley, who superintended the work.

parison with the main coal. However, as I thought they must exist there, I made inquiry, and was informed that they had been found sometimes, and in one instance worked, but that the colliers mistook them for the thin coals which lie above the main coal.

ON THE MANUFACTURE OF FRENCH CAMBRICS AND LAWNS.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

IN those parts of France and Flanders where these articles are made, they go under the general denomination of *toiles de mulquiniers*, and the persons who manufacture them are called *mulquiniers*. This branch of industry is established at Cambray, Douay, and Valenciennes, in French Flanders; and at St. Quintin, Guise, and Chauny in Picardy. It is thought that it took its rise in Cambray, from the name of which town the word *cambric* is derived. That its origin is very ancient many writers have attested, and it is known to have existed in Hainault at the period when that province was governed by Counts, who imposed a duty of two patards upon every piece of lawn and cambric. The manufacture was introduced into Picardy by some Dutch Protestant refugees, who fled from Holland when that country threw off the yoke of the house of Austria, and who subsequently settled at St. Quintin. Although the fabrication of *toiles de mulquiniers* is essentially the same as that of common linen, yet it requires an attention proportioned to the delicacy and fineness of the texture. This attention ought to commence with the culture of the flax destined for the fabric, and to be continued even to the last stage of the manufacturing process. The flax, which is of the finest quality, is almost exclusively cultivated in Hainault, on the banks of the river Scarpe. The seed which produces it is commonly procured from Dantzic and Riga. The flax grown in the vicinities of Guise, Vervins, and Chauny, is only proper to be employed in the manufacture of coarse goods. The thread used in this department of the art sells by the yard and the weight, and it is the weaver's beam which serves as the measure. This implement is not moveable on an axis, like the common beam, but is stationary, and presents two perpendicular uprights, each provided with six pegs, upon which the half-ground or length, composed of eight threads, is wound zig-zag-wise. All the thread is framed thus, whether it be intended for warp or for weft. Its price diminishes in proportion to its weight; or,

in other words, the less it weighs the dearer it sells. The thread-merchants pay the work-women according to the weight of the article, and then re-sell it to the manufacturers. The warps of the cambrics made in Picardy are 16¼ yards in length. They are divided into lengths or grounds of 16 threads, into quarters of 200 threads, each quarter making 12½ lengths. The sizes of the pieces of cambric are expressed by the number of quarters which they contain; thus, when the cambric is said to be *in twelve*, it should contain 2400 threads, but there is always an allowance of 100 threads made for the self-edge, so that the actual number of threads in each piece is 2500. There are also cambrics made *in eight*, consisting of 1600 threads; and some *in twenty-six*, containing 5300 threads. The weight of thread employed in each of these two kinds is extremely different from the other; for the first, the thread of the warp weighs 4 oz. 2 dr.—and for the second, the warp-thread only weighs 5 dr. In all cases the thread of the weft is inferior to that of the warp in weight. The manufacturer should invariably assign the best thread to the warp, and reserve the inferior sort for the weft. We have already observed that the warp, when framed, is about 16¼ yards long, but after its being manufactured the length is reduced to 15 yards, the breadth being generally ⅜ds. The workman is at liberty to sell his cambric either at 15 or 12½ yards the piece. In the latter case he cuts off as much as exceeds the prescribed quantity, and this remnant, which is called *doublet*, forms a very important article in the trade. The bleaching reduces cambrics of 12½ to 12 yards; and those of 2 yards 4 inches to 2 yards. It is here necessary to state, that the division of warps at Valenciennes and St. Quintin varies from that which we have been stating. The quarter is composed of 15 lengths of 16 threads, making in the whole 240 threads. The length of each piece is 12½ yards, and the breadth ⅝ths. No part of this is cut off. There are lengths consisting of 240 threads, weighing only ¼ oz. So trifling a weight naturally leads a person to conclude that the thread is exceedingly fine, and so indeed it is. All thread that is under 2 oz. per quarter is called *fil sans poil*, or *smooth thread*, and serves for the fabrication of superfine cambric. The price of the quarter of thread varies from 12 sous 6 deniers to 50 sous (from 6½*d.* to 2*s.* 1*d.* sterling), according to the degree of fineness; so that it is the advantage of the spinners to make their thread as fine as pos... A good *mulquinier* can make a piece of cambric in the space ... weeks. He gains from 15 to 20 franks (from 12*s.* 6*d.* to 16... piece.

Lawn is only a sort of clear or transparent cambric. In the manufacture of lawns finer thread is used than in that of cambrics, and in the proportion of 19 to 27. In Picardy the warp of lawn, like that of cambric, is framed at 16¼ yards, but the former loses less than the latter in the progress of the manufacture, being full 15½ yards in length when finished. This results from the lawn not being of so close a texture as the cambric, and the two halves of the warp being less frequently crossed. The breadth of a piece of lawn is about ⅞ds. The workman is permitted either to sell the piece in an entire state, or to reduce it to 13¼ yards, leaving a doublet of 2 yards 4 inches after bleaching, the pieces thus cut are once more reduced to 13 yards, and the doublets to two yards; without, however, the breadth of either being at all diminished. Lawns are made from 8 to 20 quarters per piece; the former being considered the worst, and the latter the best kind. There are also some pieces made which are 15½ yards in length, and ⅞ths in breadth. The workman is allowed either to sell the entire piece or to reduce it to 14¼ yards, which the bleaching diminishes to 14 yards. The process of manufacturing broad lawn differs nothing from that pursued on other occasions, except that the number of threads in the warp is augmented. It was formerly customary at Valenciennes to manufacture cambrics of the utmost fineness only, and which, in point of quality, were infinitely preferable to lawns. The latter were first made at St. Quintin, and are highly esteemed. Striped and spotted lawns are made precisely of the same dimensions, and according to the same computations as the plain articles; the only difference in the process is, that in order to produce the stripes and spots thick cotton is interwoven with the warp. The manufacture of striped and spotted lawn-handkerchiefs is the same as the foregoing; but the pieces must be 15 yards in length, to the end that each may furnish 20 handkerchiefs ⅞ths in width, and 22 of ⅞ds.

The manufacture of cambrics and lawns has received a considerable check on the continent, but especially at Valenciennes, by the competitors in the trade, who have started up of late years in Great Britain and Ireland. In Ireland are made cambrics and lawns not inferior to the coarser kinds of French manufacture. The Scotch have also turned their attention to this branch of industry, and the English government has spared neither pains nor expence to render it flourishing.

Prior to the revolution it was computed that 70,000 pieces of lawn and cambric were annually manufactured at Valenciennes.—This com-

putation includes all the articles of those descriptions manufactured in the vicinity of Valenciennes, and also such as were brought thither from Flanders and Cambresis to be bleached and sold. Valuing these at 70 francs per piece (the average price), the result will be five millions of franks, or 208,333*l*. Of the 70,000 pieces, about 2000 were sold in France, the remainder were exported to Spain, Germany, Holland, &c. Those destined for Germany pass over land by way of Brussels. Those sent by sea are usually embarked at Dunkirk and Calais; those for Spain, at Bourdeaux. Although the manufacture of cambric and lawn has greatly declined at Valenciennes, the bleaching is carried on with increased activity, for the fact is, that nearly the whole of the articles manufactured in Picardy and Flanders are bleached at Valenciennes. The produce of St. Quintin in this branch of the arts is held in higher estimation than that of any other place. The average price of St. Quintin goods is about 60 francs, or 2*l*. 10*s*. per piece. The following is a statement of the quantities of cambric and lawn marked at the different factories in the department of St. Quintin during the year immediately preceding the revolution:—

At St. Quintin	100,000	pieces.
Douay	5,000	do.
Cambray	13,000	do.
Chauny	1,200	do.
Guise	100	do.
	119,300	

At sixty francs per piece, 7,158,000 francs, or 348,250*l*. The Dutch purchase the greater part of those articles in their raw state, and bleach them at home. The species of cambric best suited to the Dutch market is that which is $\frac{5}{8}$ds in width.

We have already noticed the manufactures in Ireland and Scotland, in imitation of those of France and Flanders. Switzerland has also some of the same description; but those established in Silesia bid fairest of any to rival the French; and if the Silesians could but procure the raw material as readily and of as good quality as the French, there is no doubt that their goods would by many degrees excel those of the latter.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

HISTORY OF OPIUM.

In several parts of Arabia, particularly about Ergerum, grow vast numbers of white poppies, from the heads of which is extracted a narcotic juice, afterwards inspissated, and brought into this country in lumps of a blackish-brown colour; sometimes reddish, of a bitter taste, and a very disagreeable smell. This is that valuable and excellent drug we call *opium*, which some distinguish into two kinds; the one flowing of itself through incisions made in the heads of the poppies, and properly called *opium*; the other obtained by expression, and termed *meconium*. The former of these is preferable on all accounts, the latter being generally very impure; for the Levantines, to shorten their labour, and to get the more juice, squeeze it equally from the heads, leaves, and even stalks of the plant, and then reduce it by fire to the thickness of an extract; though some say it is drawn by decoction, and afterwards inspissated. Opium is certainly a very valuable medicine when properly administered, but the abuse of it is great and destructive. It excites sleep, whether taken inwardly or externally applied; it sooths pain, raises the spirits, and occasions the most agreeable sensations.—It ought never to be taken on a full stomach, because it hinders digestion, and commonly proves an emetic; and it is observed that this and all other narcotics, if given unseasonably, and for a continuance of time, quite destroy the appetite, and bring on sickness and habitual vomiting.—Those who take opium ought to venture only on a very small quantity at first, because the effects of the same quantity are very different on different constitutions, and it is certain that they who accustom themselves to take opium frequently must often increase the dose, otherwise it gradually loses its efficacy; insomuch that half a drachm may become requisite to produce the same effect that half a grain would have done when they first began the practice.—The usual dose is from half a grain to two grains, but those who have long habituated themselves to it can take fifty or sixty. The Turks and other eastern nations frequently take about a drachm of opium when they are going to battle, and the messengers, who are obliged to travel with great expedition, generally take some when they are weary, which gives them a fresh supply of strength and spirits. But that people may bring themselves by degrees to make use of such a quantity of opium as would cause immediate death to those unaccustomed to take it appears highly probable. Our correspondent informs us that the hard-labouring people of Surat, in India,

and especially the porters, who get their living by carrying goods to and from the warehouses, and bear loads of very great weight, have contracted such a habit of taking it, that some of them take at one dose considerably above an ounce. Many of the great and wealthy of that country also have contracted a habit of taking it, from their considering it not only as a high point of sensuality, on account of the pleasing delirium they experience from it, but as an extraordinary provocative. They usually take it in milk, boiled away from a large to a small quantity; and when they wish to put an end to its operation, swallow a spoonful or two of lime-juice, or any other acid of the same kind; but those who use it by thus forcing nature, wear out its springs, and prematurely bring on all the inconveniencies of old age: a consideration of little weight with the luxurious easterns. The best opium in the world is produced in India, particularly on the banks of the Ganges, where some of it is of an amazing strength: as a remarkable instance of which we are informed that a nabob not long ago, of those parts, having invited an English factor to an entertainment; a young writer in the company's service, whilst sauntering about the garden, unfortunately plucked a poppy, probably apprehending no greater danger from it than is to be found from the poppies in this country; but he soon fell into a profound sleep, of which the nabob being informed, eagerly inquired with much concern from which bed he had gathered the poppy, and being told, he, with strong expressions of sorrow, apologised for his having supposed that the nature of poppies were too well known to require any warning, especially as the taste was far from being tempting; but that the sort which the English gentleman had the misfortune to pitch upon admitted of no human remedy, and nothing could save him, which really was the case, for that was his last sleep. It will not be improper to add, while we are treating of opium, that the nations of Surat pretend that it has a strange paradoxical mixture of effects in its operation, causing at once a seeming heaviness of the head, an apparent sleepiness of the eyes, and yet an extraordinary watchfulness, in confirmation of which they relate the following story: —That one of the governors of that town, receiving a visit from a gentoo-rajah, at a garden, without the city walls, they met, each attended by their guards; as they were walking, the governor took notice of the Rajah's guards, who were squatted down, after their manner in an open guard-room, with their heads leaning on their naked swords, and, in appearance, either dosing or fast asleep. The governor observed, with a smile, to the rajah that he had a very just opinion of his good faith, since he would venture this interview, with guards

in such a condition, from the opium, he was aware they had taken. "That," says the rajah, "is a mistake, and if there be any body here for whom you have no concern, bid him pluck a flower as softly as he pleases out of any of their turbans." The governor immediately ordered a person who was near him to do what the rajah had mentioned. The man obeyed, and with the utmost caution approached him who seemed most overcome with sleep, snatched off the flower; instantly the guard felt what was done, and without more ceremony at one stroke cut off his arm, and the rest were instantly on their feet.

Opium has been made from poppies in England equal to that imported from abroad, and Dr. Cox, of Philadelphia, asserts that the inspissated milky juice of the common garden lettuce is precisely similar in its effects to the opium of Turkey. The Rev. Dr. Cartwright too is said to have found the same thing by experiment.

It will be seen by the custom-house entries that very considerable quanties of opium have of late years been imported into this country, much more than can be well imagined to be used as medicine alone; and it has frequently been alleged, but we hope with no degree of credit, that it has been used by some avaricious and unprincipled persons concerned in the porter breweries. Prepared opium or *laudanum* is a tincture of opium made either with spirit of wine or water, having different ingredients added, according to the use it is intended for.

The inhabitants of Malacca, Borneo, Sumatra, Java, and the other Indian isles, all smoke opium mixed with their tobacco, and those who are desirous of attempting any desperate action, intoxicate themselves with the fume. The Turks likewise smoke and chew opium just before they go into battle.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

ON THE USES OF NITRE, MARBLE, &c.

Sulphate of Magnesia, or the Salt of Epsom

Is principally employed as a purgative. Magnesia is also obtained from it by the aid of alkali. This earth, when washed and dried, is used with a view to correct the acid humours of digestion; to accomplish which, it should be perfectly free from carbonic acid, which is known to be the case when it no longer effervesces with other acids.

Gypsum.

The lamella, or compact varieties of gypsum, known by the name of gypseous alabaster, being susceptible of polish, sometimes serves

for making tables and other furniture; but in consequence of their limited durability, they soon lose their polish. At Florence, vases and small figures remarkably diaphanous are formed of alabaster; when a light is introduced into these vases it spreads a soft and agreeable light throughout our apartments. It has been asserted that the ancients, knowing this property, used gypsum instead of glass, to prevent any thing penetrating their temples except a pale and mysterious light; and it is thought that this is the stone formerly denominated *phengite*.

Plaster of Paris is simply coarse sulphate of lime, deprived at a fit temperature of its water of crystallization, the sulphuric acid still remaining combined with the lime.

Furnaces for calcining plaster of Paris are always of a simple construction, and not unfrequently formed of plaster itself.

Prepared plaster must be diluted with water; this operation, which is a sort of slacking, restores to the sulphate its water of crystallization; when the quantity of water added to the plaster is nearly equal to it in volume, this fluid is greatly absorbed, and the mass becomes solid in consequence. It is remarked that at the instant of concretion much caloric is liberated; this is consequent to the conversion of the liquid gypsum to its solid form; we farther remark that good plaster expands at the moment of concretion, a circumstance almost always attending irregular crystallization; so that the workmen are under the necessity of adding different powders to the plaster, as ashes &c. when this property of gypsum is detrimental to their works. Plaster well baked, and which has been long exposed to the air, loses its propert of setting. It appears that in one instance the plaster has undergone a sort of semi-vitrification, and in the other that it has recovered its water of crystallization.

Carbonate of lime naturally mixed with plaster, as in the case of the plaster of Mont-martre, has its qualities bettered by partaking of the properties of mortars. This plaster is much firmer than what is made from pure sulphate of lime; though the last be finer and whiter, and more proper for moulding, and other objects of sculpture.

Plaster is used in many places to ameliorate the soil, and chiefly when the earth is too moist, especially when with a view to clover grass.

Plaster also forms a coating of a particularly fine grain, capable of receiving various tints and a high polish, which is termed stucco.

Plaster is selected, and carefully baked, to which is added Dutch size; in the act of mixing in sufficient quantity, it is introduced on

employing such colours as we wish to tint it with, being previously heated on a water bath; when the coating of plaster has become dry, it is polished first with pumice-stone, secondly with a powdered whetstone, and lastly with tripoli; its last lustre is given by active friction with a piece of felt, or with oil only. Stucco is also made with pure lime.

Marble.

The white or statuary marble is employed in preference to all others by sculptors; and the ancients gave to marbles of particular qualities particular names.

The statuary marbles of most celebrity are the *Parian*, termed by the ancients *Luchnites*. This was in the highest esteem; it possesses transparency; its grain is somewhat coarse. Quarries of it were found in the isles of Paros, Naxos, and Tenedos, which are said to be exhausted at the present time. The celebrated statues of the Venus de Medici, of the Venus of the Capitol, of the Pallas of Velletri, &c. are of this marble. The *Pentelic marble*, found near Athens, on Mount Pentelos, is wreathed by veins of a greenish colour, approaching to gray, and is usually of a micaceous texture. It is named by the French, vulgarly, *Cipolin statuatire*. The bust of Alexander, the Indian Bacchus, *Il dorso*, the statue of Æsculapius, the head of Hippocrates, &c. have been formed of this marble. The marble of *Carrara* or of *Luni*, on the east of the lake of Genes, is still whiter than the *Parian*, and appears upon the whole to have been preferred for ancient statuary. Its fracture is more polyhederic than saccharoid; it is what is now principally used by statuaries. Many antique figures of this marble may be cited, as the Antinous of the Capitol, a colossal bust of Jupiter, &c. Dolomieu assures us that the Apollo of Belvidere is of the marble of Luni; but the marble-workers of Rome are of opinion that it is an ancient Greek marble, very different from what we are now acquainted with. Among statuary marbles may be also reckoned the Greek marble of Mount Hymettus, which exhibits large facets, and not unfrequently ash-coloured, approaching to a deep blue. The *Thasion marble* from the isle of Thaos, in the Ægean Sea, is white; that of *Proconnèse*, in the sea of Marmora, is streaked with reddish lines,—(Visconti). The *Arabian marble* is still whiter than the Parian. The marble of *Chio*, which is got in large blocks from Mount Pelleno, M. Visconti believes to be a black marble. We generally term antique marbles such as, with respect to their quarries, are neither longer known or sought after.

There are few places which are destitute of lime-stone, or the

saccharoid carbonate of lime in primitive mountains. Statuary marble is likewise found in France, in Piedmont, at Ponte, near Turin, in Saxony; in Bohemia, in Norway, in Sweden, in England, &c.; but statuary marble capable of being employed is scarce, because it should possess several qualities which are rare, and seldom found combined. Saccharoid carbonate of lime also embraces some *coloured marbles*. The *deep blue* is a sallow blue slate, and owes its colour to the doubtful matter by which it is percolated. (Tondi). It comes from Setifi, in Mauritania. The *Cipolin marble*, marked by large wavy bands, blue, green, and micaceous is obtained from Egypt; its quarries are no longer known; but Corsica yields a saccharoid greenish brilliant talcy marble which belongs to this subvariety. The *white marble*, with gray veins, of Carrara; and the *yellow marble* of Sienna, are of the same kind.

These marbles are also used for the decoration of our edifices, and apartments; vases are formed of it, as well as chimney ornaments, &c. This last method of employing them has given occasion to remark that many specimens, after a certain time, assume a sort of inelastic flexibility, which is owing to a complete desiccation, and to the energy of repeated contraction and expansion. The saccharoid marbles found at the tops of mountains sometimes naturally possess this quality, as has been observed by M. Flurian, of Bellevue, at the height of 2000 metres, on the mountain of Campo-longo, at seven leagues distance from the convent of St. Gothard. Some marbles also obtain this property by long exposure to air, and particularly the sun, so that any part starting from statues formed of them, are detached, and fall off of their own accord, after a certain lapse of time. Dolomieu has made this remark upon the Italian marbles named *Betullio*.

The places furnishing marbles, most highly esteemed are Spain, the Pyrennees, and Italy. The environs of Verona are interspersed with quarries of marble; Spada reckons up twenty-five.

The estimation in which marble is held depends upon its brilliancy of colour, the lustre of its polish, its homogeneity, and especially its unalterability on exposure to the air. Marbles containing alumin speedily crumble in the air; and such as contain the sulphuret of iron are readily converted into a salt, being speedily corroded.

Marble is not only employed with a view to ornament edifices, but even for the purposes of building, when it is to be had in quantity.

Marble, as we have said, acquires polish and a lively lustre; the manner of polishing it is different with respect to its colours; the following process applies to marbles of a dark colour.

After having planed the surface of any piece to be polished with a chisel, or made it even by the saw, it is made perfectly level by pieces of common red pottery made of clay, to which is added water. This first operation being concluded, the sand is entirely removed, the slab is *plumbed*, that is to say, the marble is forcibly rubbed with a leaden parallelopipedon, picked underneath to receive emery, say of the fourth subsidence, and water; the surface thus becomes wholly united, very smooth, but destitute of polish; we then take filings of lead mixed with one-third their weight of alum, and they rub briskly with a roll of linen the surface of the marble, without removing the emery which is attached to it. About the conclusion of the operation, the last polish is given with putty of tin, which is employed dry and upon the same linen. The surface of the marble is wiped with serge, and it is polished. Marbles of a pale hue are polished with the help of pumice-stone instead of lead, which blackens them; and like putty of tin would stain yellow the most beautiful white marble; we substitute in this case a putty of bone ash: this was mutton bones, calcined, bruised and mixed with one-third part of alum.

White marbles are liable to become yellow on exposure to the air; they may be perfectly cleaned by means of diluted oxygenated muriatic acid.

Chalk.

Chalk is used in the arts as a crayon. It is used also for cleaning metals and glass. It furnishes also all the paint employed for painting in distemper. It should be pure, that is, freed from the sand which it usually contains. After the chalk has been got from the beds, it is broken into small pieces and diluted at first with a small portion of water, and afterwards with a greater quantity of this liquid. This diluted chalk is set aside for about two hours, and when it is supposed that the sand has subsided we decant into pails (and without disturbing the sediment), the milky liquor which it separates from, and transfer it into tubs, where it is allowed to deposit. The water, after having become clear, is again decanted, the chalk being allowed to assume as much consistence as to become manageable and capable of being formed into masses, which are plastered on the sides of the quarry, where they soon acquire the firmness necessary to be moulded into cylinders by the hand. These cylinders are carried from the quarry; they are laid one upon another, and formed into little walls, leaving empty spaces of the size of the cylinders. These walls are placed by two and

two at some distance from each other, and they are covered in by a slight roof of stubble.

These cylinders or roofs of chalk become completely dry; they are sold under the name of *whiting*, and Spanish white.

Alabaster

Serves for the decoration of buildings, and enters the composition of some sorts of furniture. Fine vases are formed of it. It is one of the stones in most frequent use among the ancients. It should not seem that its name is derived from the Latin *albus*, as analogy leads us to believe; for it has been observed, that white alabaster is very rare: what the ancients most esteemed was not of this colour, but of a honey yellow; we think the word to be derived from *alabastrite*, which comes from the Greek Αλαβαστρον, and which implies not to be seized. It is the term given by the ancients to vases made of this material; for being without ears and highly polished, it could not be laid hold on except with some trouble.

Alabastrite is not more the proper name of gypseous alabaster, as some mineralogists have imagined. Thus the ancients also called calcareous alabaster *onychites*, and even simply *onyx*, on account of its concentric layers, similar to the zones upon our nails, but they were confounded with silex of the same name.

The most beautiful alabaster is by no means common. That of Egypt is derived from the mountains of Thebaïde, situated between the Nile and Red Sea, near a town called *Alabastren*. We may see at the Museum *Napoleon* an almost colossal figure of an Egyptian god made of an alabaster very rare, called in Italian *Liniato*, which is marked by fine undulating veins, and of a puce colour. It is found near Montieri.

The alabaster found at Malta is a beautiful honey yellow.

ON BRITISH OAK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR, *Chapel-street, No. 1, 1810.*

I HAVE received the third volume of your Magazine complete; studiously observing its increased estimation; I now take up the pen to add my mite, first apologizing, under the presumed idea that the person who, though not giving *direct*, is *the cause* of some useful information

being circulated, has some claim on your attention. If you admit of this, I shall certainly do my best endeavours to disperse as much positive and useful information as my situation will command, and commence on that individual and national concern, the felling of British oak. The raising of sound heart of oak has not only engaged royal attention, but the consideration of the first class of men in the country, and whose labours are entirely set aside, if the time adopted for felling subverts their best intentions, and this being the season, I cannot better introduce the subject than under the following questions.

1st, Whence arises the difference, that oak is in general cut down in the spring, when ash, elm, and other timber is deferred to the fall of the leaf?

2d, What is the best time for felling oak, to obtain it the most durable?

I am aware of the advantages accruing from the sale of the bark in the spring, but am dubious of the quality of the timber in comparison of that felled and hewn in autumn, as far as respects the quantity of sap in the tree, and to the weather it is immediately after exposed.

There are so few manufactories but what are herein concerned, and particularly the grand bulwark of England, that I hope it will engage the attention of some of your correspondents more able to treat upon the questions than your constant reader and obedient servant,

J. K. G.

COMPLAINTS OF THE CONTINENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

AS a further proof (if further is necessary) of the extension of the British commerce abroad, notwithstanding the efforts of the enemy to the contrary, I enclose you an extract from a pamphlet which has made much noise on the continent; the insertion of which, I doubt not, will be as satisfactory to your subscribers as to your constant reader,

ARGUS.

A very strong sensation has been created in Germany and Holland by a small pamphlet, which was clandestinely put into circulation in the beginning of January, entitled, "The Complaints of the People of the Continent, on the subject of the Interruption of their Commerce, addressed to all the Princes of this part of the World."

The France police at Hamburgh, where it is supposed to have been printed, have in vain offered a reward of 600 rix-dollars for a discovery of the author and printer; and it continues to be eagerly sought after by persons of every description, notwithstanding the denunciation of a penalty of 300 rix-dollars against any one having a copy in his possession. It contrasts, in a clear and intelligible manner, the effects of Napoleon's prohibitory system upon this country and the continent. Instead of fulfilling the expectations held out from it, the result, with regard to Great Britain, is stated to be that "she is, year after year, rendering herself more independent of the continent, opening new channels of consumption abroad, and discovering new resources at home; in the same manner as France never became so well acquainted with the products of her soil and the extent of her own resources as from 1793 to 1796, when the project was formed of starving her by blockading her ports, and depriving her of foreign grain." The author then enumerates the new channels which we have already opened, or are daily opening, for those articles of importation formerly procured from the continent; and with regard to our exports, he says,—"We see that the European blockade operates with so little effect upon Great Britain, that her manufactures scarcely feel its pressure, inasmuch as the demand for them in India and the two Americas experiences a prodigious increase every year. In short it is proved by the most authentic calculations, well known to every publicist, and by the reports of the best informed and most impartial travellers, that industry, commerce, the public revenue, and public credit, have not only suffered no diminution, but have, on the contrary, gone on in an increasing ratio; that activity, prosperity, and comfort are conspicuous in every class of her population; and that, accordingly, that country can support the existing state of things on the continent, for ten years to come, or perhaps for a longer period.—In consequence of the inefficiency of a land carriage for commercial operations upon a great scale, he complains that the farmers and manufacturers are condemned to see their surplus commodities perishing on their hands, and have no longer any heart, or even so much as a wish to cultivate the soil, or to prosecute their industry." He particularly dwells on the inconvenience felt from the prohibition of cotton and cotton-yarn, dye-stuffs, and drugs, and the hardship of not being permitted to procure even from America such of those articles as she could supply. "These restrictions," he observes, "are not merely injurious to one or two branches of the commerce and industry of particular states, they extend their baleful effects over the sum total of the happiness and industy of the continent.

Every thing throughout its whole extent is disturbed, obstructed, and oppressed. Harassing regulations, examinations, certificates, the duties levied even on the unprohibited merchandise, the excessive augmentation of the post duties, embarrass and impede the continental communications from one European region to another, literary communications, and even epistolary correspondence between families and individuals. On the other hand, the absolute inactivity to which the maritime states are condemned, the impossibility of employing their people in the fisheries, divests them of the habits of their element, renders them for the future unfit for a seafaring life, deprives us of our natural nurseries of seamen, and reduces us to the impossibility of one day fitting out mercantile and military navies, capable of rivalling those of Great Britain, whose indefinite superiority is thus most effectually and for ever secured."

The following are a few of the concluding passages:—"These considerations, which might be easily enlarged upon and enforced, must sufficiently demonstrate that the continent can no longer support this stagnation in the ordinary relations of life."—"Every one that has the means of emigration prepares to remove to England or America; and among those who are interdicted from leaving this desolate territory, how many have already fallen the victims of despair!"—"There is another consideration which governments cannot regard with indifference, and that is the immorality, the disregard to good faith and probity, which have made so rapid and alarming a progress, owing to the general distress and misery. The people, hitherto accustomed to see in their chiefs a second providence which watched over their prosperity, gave a ready obedience to laws of which that prosperity was the evident object. At the present time, a new law, interdicting them from the means of procuring a subsistence, strikes them with stupefaction. The majority of them cannot be convinced of the actual existence of those prohibitions, and therefore feel no hesitation in violating them; and thus the people are habituated to a contempt of public authority. How many culprits does not such a state of things produce? How many are driven by necessity and despair to robbery, theft, and swindling; and, from the want of an honest livelihood, betake themselves to means the most criminal? Hence proceed false oaths, and the corruption, a thousand times attempted, and not always without success, of the very agents of the prohibitory system. From this it is obvious that the means of comfort which can still be obtained must be concentrated in the most impure hands—those of the corrupters and the corrupted; whilst rigid probity is doomed to feel all the pressure of

calamity. Princes, fathers of your people, you who hear their lamentations and their groans—it is you whom they invoke with their prayers—it is to you that their hopes look for refuge—you will become their intercessors. It is you who will carry their grievances to the foot of the imperial throne of the *Great Napoleon*, who will enlighten *his religion*, with regard to this state of anxiety and distress, which, doubtless, has not hitherto been truly represented to him. It belongs to his powerful hand, to his genius, to remove the fetters in which we are perishing, and to *conciliate his new measures with the accomplishment of his grand views.* May you respectively enjoy the inestimable felicity of reigning over a people happy, contented, grateful, loyal, and virtuous! A blessing which is, beyond doubt, the greatest that Heaven can bestow upon you!"

ON DISCOUNT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR, *Chapel-street, No. 2, 1810.*

FROM my first entrance into business, being that of a retail manufacturer, I have considered a discount of five per cent. (where a man only charged a reasonable profit) to be a deduction more than he could afford upon the whole scale of his business. I have long entertained this opinion, custom alone has sanctioned the proceeding; but being in company the other day, when it became the topic of conversation, it was entered into arithmetically and explained. A discount of five per cent. is supposed to be a deduction of five per cent. only from the profits; now as there are many who may be of the same opinion, I think it will be serving them to explain that it is full 25 per cent. of the amount of profits, or 6¼ per cent. of the amount of the bill's first cost. I shall, therefore, to be easier understood, work in round numbers:—A manufacturer says, that, according to his particular calling, he cannot live under 25 per cent. profit, or 20 per cent. for money. The cost of an article is

	£100	0	0	Charge.....	£125	0	0	Received £118 15 0
Profit....	25	0	0	Dist. 5 p. cent.	6	5	0	Paid cost 100 0 0
Charge..	£125	0	0	Received....	£118	15	0	Nett profit £18 15 0

Amount of a bill costs

	£400	0	0	Charge.....	£500	0	0	Profit .. £100 0 0
25 p. ct. profit	100	0	0	Dist. 5 p. cent.	25	0	0	Loss, dist. 25 0 0
Charge....	£500	0	0	Received....	£475	0	0	Nett gain £75 0 0

By this simple mistake, if a man does business to any extent, he may find himself greatly deficient in the amount of his profits, and wonder at the cause, which will be in proportion as he rates them. The manufacturer cannot avoid this loss; but the dealer, who can make immediate use of his money, will only sustain it partially.

Should you think this worthy of insertion, and it shall render any service to your readers, I shall feel a pleasure in subscribing myself your constant reader and fair dealer,

J. G.

ADVICE TO YOUNG TRADESMEN.

(Continued from page 213.)

Of the Tradesman in Distress, and becoming a Bankrupt.

IN former times it was a dismal and calamitous thing for a tradesman to break: where it befell a family, it put all into confusion and distraction; the man in the utmost terror, fright, and distress, ran away with what goods he could get off, as if the house was on fire, to get into the Friars, or the Mint; the family fled one one way, and one another, like people in desperation; the wife to her father and mother, if she had any, and the children some to one relation, some to another; a statute (so they vulgarly call a commission of bankruptcy) came and swept away all, and oftentimes consumed it too, and left little or nothing either to pay the creditors or relieve the bankrupt. This made the bankrupt desperate, and made him fly to those places of shelter with his goods, where, hardened by the cruelty of the creditors, he chose to spend all the effects which should have paid the creditors, and at last perished in misery.

But now the case is altered: men make so little of breaking, that many times the family scarce removes for it: a commission of bankruptcy is so familiar a thing that the debtor oftentimes causes it to be taken out in his favour, that he may the sooner be effectually delivered from all his creditors at once, the law obliging him to give a full account of himself upon oath to the commissioners, who, when they see his integrity, may effectually deliver him from all further molestation, give him a part even of the creditors' estate, and so he may push into the world again, and try whether he cannot retrieve his fortunes by a better management, or with better success for the future.

In a commercial country like ours, perhaps it is impossible that bankruptcies should be wholly avoided; but out of a hundred, proba-

bly there is not more than one which is the consequence of unavoidable misfortune. This may seem, at first view, an uncharitable statement, but let facts speak for themselves: if inquiry be made, in every town it will be found, that some of its most dashing inhabitants have formerly failed in business.

Is there more than one in a hundred of those who call their creditors together for the purpose of paying the remainder of their debts? The signing of a certificate is no discharge to an honest man; such a one, so soon as he has it in his power, will be eager to pay to the very utmost farthing; and if he be not honest when rising in the world, it is more than probable he was a knave when sinking. Considering the progress that is made in civilization, it seems astonishing that a crime attended with such incalculable mischief is not rendered more disgraceful. There is one Christian society who have a law, that if one of its members fails, unless he can prove it to be the consequence of inevitable misfortune (in which case he is assisted and encouraged) is immediately disowned, forfeits all the privileges of the society, and is suffered to sink into the disgrace he deserves; the consequence is, that a bankruptcy is a very rare event indeed amongst that very respectable body, the Quakers. In the community at large this evil seems rather to be encouraged than checked; when a man finds, owing to bad management in trade, extravagance in his family, and a general improvidence which commonly runs through the whole system, that he can go on no longer, he gets some person that is connected with him to strike what is called a friendly docket (in order to prevent his being sent to prison), pays his creditors the composition he chooses, gets his certificate signed, and, to the astonishment of all but the initiated, in a little time gets on in a higher style than before, vies with his neighbours in expence, takes his journies of pleasure, and boasts of his prosperity, while the humble hard-working manufacturer, or mechanic, who had perhaps entrusted his little all in his master's hands, is crushed to rise no more. The oppressor stalks by with unfeeling superciliousness; but the hour is not far distant when he shall be made to know that a day of retribution is coming.

The man who trades beyond his capital, or who lives beyond his income, is a pest to the neighbourhood, and an enemy to the great interests of society; he is a public robber, a robber of the most dangerous kind; for, under the specious pretence of lawful traffic, of enlarging his connexions, and encreasing his trade, if he happens to have any relatives sufficiently kind and credulous, he will not rest till he has secured the honest earnings of patient industry, or the humble inde-

pendence of an unconnected female. That he may bring down the grey hairs of the former with sorrow to the grave, or plunge the latter into all the horrors of want; that he is bringing up his children in habits which must render them miserable, never enters into the calculations of this hero in iniquity. To live and to make an appearance is his object, and should the transient pang of remorse threaten to betray itself on his bloated countenance, with a few additional glasses he drives off care till to-morrow.

It deserves consideration, that the persons who fail are seldom those who have earned what they begin with; had they laboured hard for it, they would have learned the value of property better than to have fooled it away. It was the excellent advice of that very exalted character Philip Henry to his children:—"Tremble to borrow two-pence;" but there is a fatal sort of wrong-headedness accompanies the unwise in all they do; the maxims of wisdom, the counsel of friends avail nothing to him, his eyes are only open when complete ruin overwhelms him.

Some have said that law is too favourable to the bankrupt, that it makes tradesmen careless, that they value not breaking at all, but run on at all hazards, venturing without forecast and without consideration, knowing they may come off again so cheap and so easy, if they miscarry; but though I cannot enter here into a long debate upon that subject, yet I may have room to say, that I differ from those people very much; for though the terror of the commission is in some measure abated, as indeed it ought to be, because it was before exorbitant and unreasonable; yet the terror of ruining a man's family, sinking his fortunes, blasting his credit, and throwing him out of business, and into the worst disgrace that a tradesman can fall into, this is not taken away or abated at all; and this to an honest trading man, is as bad as all the rest ever was or could be.

Nor can a man be supposed, in the rupture of his affairs, to receive any comfort, or to see through his disasters into the little relief which he may, and at the same time cannot be sure he shall, receive at the end of his troubles, from the mercy of the commission.

These are poor things, and very trifling, for a tradesman to entertain thoughts of a breach from, especially with any prospect of satisfaction; nor can any honest tradesman, with the least shadow of principle entertain any thought of breaking, but with the utmost aversion, and even abhorrence; for the circumstances of it are attended with so many mortifications, and so many shocking things, contrary to all the views and expectations that a tradesman can begin the world with, that he cannot think of it, but as we do of the grave, with a chilness

upon the blood, and a tremour in the spirits. Breaking is the death of a tradesman; he is mortally stabbed; or, as we may say, shot through the head in his trading capacity; his shop is shut up, as it is when a man is buried; his credit, the life and blood of his trade, is stagnated; and his attendance, which was the pulse of his business, is stopt, and beats no more: in a word, his fame, and even name as to trade, is buried, and the commissioners, that act upon him, and all their proceedings, are but like the executors of the defunct, dividing the ruins of his fortune, and at last his certificate is a kind of performing the obsequies for the dead, and praying him out of purgatory.

Did ever an honest tradesman set up on purpose to break? Did ever a man build himself a house on purpose to have it burnt down? I can by no means grant that any tradesman, at least in his senses, can entertain the least satisfaction in his trading, or abate any thing of his diligence in trade, from the easiness of breaking, or the abated severities of the bankrupt act.

I could argue it from the nature of the act itself, which indeed was made, and is effectual, chiefly for the relief of creditors, not debtors; to secure the bankrupt's effects for the use of those to whom it of right belongs, and to prevent the extravagant expences of the commission, which formerly were such as often devoured all, ruining both the bankrupt and his creditors too. This the present law has providently put a stop to, and the creditors now are secure in this point, that what is to be had, what the poor tradesman has left, they are sure to have preserved for, and divided among them, which indeed before they were not.

As to the encouragements in the act for the bankrupt, they are only these; namely, that, upon his honest and faithful surrender of his affairs, he shall be set at liberty; and, if they see cause, they, the creditors, may give him back a small gratification for his discovering his effects, and assisting to the recovery of them; and all this, which amounts to very little, is upon his being, as I have said, entirely honest, and having run through all possible examinations and purgations, and that it is at the peril of his life if he prevaricates.

Are these encouragements to tradesmen to be negligent and careless of the event of things? Will any man in his wits fail in his trade, break his credit, and shut up his shop for these prospects? Or will he comfort himself in case he is forced to fail, I say, will he comfort himself with these little benefits, and make the matter easy to himself on that account? He must have a very mean spirit that can do this, and must act upon very mean principles in life, who can fall with satisfaction, on purpose to rise no higher than this; it is like a man going

to bed on purpose to rise naked, pleasing himself with the thoughts, that though he shall have no cloaths to put on, yet he shall have the liberty to get out of bed and shift for himself.

On these accounts, and some others, too long to mention here, I think it is out of doubt that the easiness of the proceedings on commissions of bankrupt, can be no encouragement to any tradesman to break, or so much as to entertain the thoughts of it, with less horror and aversion than he would have done before this law was made.

But I must come now to speak of the tradesman in his real state of mortification, and under the inevitable necessity of a blow upon his affairs: he has had losses in his business, such as are too heavy for his stock to support; he has perhaps launched out in trade beyond his reach; either he has so many bad debts, that he cannot find by his books he has enough left to pay his creditors; or his debts lie out of his reach, and he cannot get them in, which in one respect is as bad; he has more bills running against him than he knows how to pay; and creditors dunning him who it is hard for him to comply with; and this by degrees sinks his credit.

Now, could the poor unhappy tradesman take good advice, now would be his time to prevent his utter ruin; and, let his case be better or worse, his way is clear.

If it be only that he has over-shot himself in trade, taken too much credit, and is loaded with goods; or given too much credit, and cannot get his debts it; but that, upon casting up his books, he finds his circumstances good at bottom, though his credit has suffered by his effects being out of his hands; let him endeavour to retrench, let him check his career in trade; immediately take some extraordinary measures to get in his debts, or some extraordinary measures, if he can, to raise money in the mean time, till those debts come in, that he may stop the crowd of present demands; if this will not do, let him treat with some of his principal creditors, shewing them a true and faithful state of his affairs, and giving them the best assurances he can of payment, that they may be easy with him till he can get in his debts; and then, with the utmost care, draw in his trade within the due compass of his stock, and be sure never to run out again farther than he is able to answer, let the prospect of advantage be what it will; by this method he may perhaps recover his credit; at least he may prevent his otherwise inevitable ruin; but this is always supposing the man has a firm bottom, that he is sound in the main, and that his stock is at least sufficient to pay all his debts.

But the difficulty which I am proposing to speak of is, when the

poor tradesman, distressed as above in point of credit, looking into his affairs, finds the melancholy truth there too plain to be concealed; finds that his stock is really diminished, or perhaps entirely sunk; that in short he has such losses, and such disappointments in his business, that he is not sound at bottom; that he has run too far, and that his own stock being wasted or sunk, he has not really sufficient to pay his debts; what is this man's business? and what course shall he take?

I know the ordinary course with such tradesmen is this:—"It is true," says the poor man, "I am running down, and I have lost so much in such a place, and so much by such a person that broke, and in short so much, that I am worse than nothing; but come, I have such a thing before me; or I have undertaken such a project; or I have such an adventure abroad, if it succeeds I may recover again; I will try my utmost; I will never drown while I can swim; I will never fall while I can stand; who knows but I may get over it at last?" In a word, the poor man is loth to come to the fatal day; loth to have his name in the Gazette, and see his wife and family turned out of doors, and the like. Who can blame him? or who is not, in the like case, apt to take the like measures? for it is natural to us all to put the evil day far from us; at least to put it as far off as we can: though the criminal believes he shall be executed at last, yet he accepts of every reprieve, as it puts him within the possibility of an escape, and that, as long as there is life there is hope; but at last the dead warrant comes down, then he sees death unavoidable, and gives himself up to despair.

Indeed the malefactor is in the right to accept, as I say, of every reprieve; but it is quite otherwise in the tradesman's case; and, if I may give him a rule, safe, and in its end comfortable, in proportion to his circumstances, but to be sure, out of question, just, honest, and prudent: It is this:—

When he perceives his case as above, and knows that if his new adventures or projects should fail, he cannot by any means stand or support himself, I not only give it as my advice to all tradesmen, as their interest, but insist upon it, as they are honest men, *they shall break*, that is, stop in time; fear not to do that which necessity obliges you to do; but above all, fear not to do that early, which, if omitted, necessity will oblige you to do late.

First, let me argue upon the honesty of it, and next upon the prudence of it. Certainly honesty obliges every man, when he sees that his stock is gone, that he is below the level, and eating into the estates of other men, to put a stop to it in time, while something is left. It has been a fault, without doubt, to break in upon other men's estates

at all; but perhaps a plea may be made for this, viz. that it was ignorantly done, and they did not think they were run so far, as to be worse than nothing; or some sudden disaster may have occasioned it, which they did not expect, and, it may be, could not foresee; and, therefore, this may be called an excuse, both which, indeed may happen to a tradesman; but I must add, that the former can hardly happen without his fault, because he ought to be always acquainting himself with his books, stating his expences and his profits, and casting things up frequently, at least in his head, so as always to know whether he goes backward or forward. The latter indeed, namely, sudden disaster, may happen so to any tradesman as that he may be undone, and it may not be his fault; for ruin sometimes falls as suddenly as unavoidably upon a tradesman, though there be but very few incidents of that kind, which may not be accounted for in such a manner as to charge it upon his prudence.

HINTS ON THE NUMEROUS CAPTURES OF BRITISH MERCHANT VESSELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THE astonishing power of Great Britain by sea, exceeds by far what was ever known of the kind since the creation of the world. If the maritime strength of all the nations besides upon earth were assembled, and the British at the same time, the former would make but a poor figure before the latter.

This is so notorious a truth, that no enlightened statesman will controvert it; and it may confidently defy the sophistry of the most rancorous and most audacious enemy of this country, to assert the contrary.

So stupendous a power, combined with the skill and heroism of British admirals and officers in general, and the wonderful courage and intrepidity of British seamen, now irresistibly terrific to the enemies of this country, have annihilated every expectation of obtaining any decisive victory over it on any sea upon the surface of the globe, and driven them to their last remaining resource, that is, to annoy its commerce wherever they have an opportunity.

They are aware that British ships of war cannot be every where to watch them; and are, above all, confident that their unalluring cap-

tures will not compensate the dangerous efforts of the captors, as richer prizes can do more adequately.

This is an evil, Sir, pregnant with mischief; it has increased, is increasing, and ought to be speedily checked; for it is very probable, from the general position of affairs, that the present war may yet last many years; and therefore it becomes an indispensable duty to protect every branch of the public revenue, and especially commerce, which forms the principal source of that revenue.

This plan of the enemy is evidently directed to attack Great Britain in a vital part, in hopes, at least, to paralyze her noble exertions in behalf of herself and her necessitous allies.

The idea of imputing to British naval officers any want of zeal to check and chastise the audacity of the enemy's privateers, is far from my mind; but though the common sailors are animated in a high degree with the love of their country, their pressing wants reasonably require a generous *stimulus* to enterprizes in which the danger of losing their lives is so great, and the hope of reward so inadequate, as the capture of a paltry, though mischievous privateer.

That the hope of gain should be a strong incitement in the mind of a poor sailor to brave danger, is but natural and reasonable.

Let us reflect on the hardships of his life, and the scanty means of supporting it, particularly if he has relatives (and it must be often the case) whom he wishes to assist. What will be his feelings and his intuitive observations, on returning to his country, and particularly to the capital, after having faced the horrid front of war, with the loss perhaps of some limb, when he observes the opulence and the luxury of his countrymen, whilst he and his family are plunged in abject misery, and his craving children are asking, but in vain, for a morsel of bread?

These observations, Sir, do not merely occur to my mind from reading the numerous captures in Lloyd's List made by the enemy's privateers, or from vague reports concerning the dispositions of British sailors on the subject, but from an habitual intercourse with seamen of various descriptions, by which I am forcibly convinced of the existence and magnitude of the evil in question, and of the necessity of a speedy remedy, before it becomes inveterate.

The remedy, Sir, I shall have the honour of proposing, is both easy and congenial to British minds. Would it not be wise, generous, and politic, in the great body of merchants, to create a fund by subscription for this purpose, and to offer liberal premiums to the officers and crews of British armed vessels in general for the capture of privateers,

of whatever country they may be, at war with this nation, over and above the value of the prizes of that description, which often proves very inadequate to the risk and danger of the captors?

Were I not sure of addressing this proposal to enlightened minds, alive to their interests, and disposed to promote the general good, I should be more diffuse on this important occasion.

I am, Sir, your humble servant,

A Friend to poor British Seamen.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

ON THE PROFIT TO BE DERIVED FROM THE CULTIVATION OF THE COMMON FLAX IN THE FLOWER-GARDEN.

Communicated by Mr. John Dunbar to the Horticultural Society.

THE object of the present paper is to bring into cultivation the common flax as an ornament of the flower-garden, not merely as such, but with a view to the profit it will afford, at least to the servant, if not to the master; and the interests of the former can seldom be promoted, in an honest way, without some benefit accruing to the latter.

This plant, when so cultivated, like wax and honey, forms part of the natural riches of a country, and if it could supplant the cumbersome yellow lupine in our flower borders, the annual revenue arising from it would amount to several thousand pounds.

If gardening were in its infant state among us, a complete treatise on the culture of this plant might be necessary; but as this is not the case, only what is especially material will be noticed, with some directions how to prepare the plant after it is gathered; they are the result of several years experience, by which a family consisting of five persons has been supplied with all the linen they required.

The soil of every flower-garden is always rich enough to produce good flax, but if it is loamy rather than sandy, the quantity will be nearly double; even in the fields, which can never be cultivated with the nicety of a gentleman's garden, I have observed the greatest crops in a loamy soil, and that they yielded an article superior in quality as well as quantity; for as the durability of the fibre depends in some measure upon its size; there can be no doubt that tall and vigorous plants are preferable to small ones.

There are various ways of disposing this plant so as to be exceedingly

ornamental, but none more so than scattering it in random parcels of little clumps, from ten to twenty plants, toward the back of the flower borders, and in the front of the shrubbery; for, without the summer proves uncommonly dry, it will attain to the height of three or four feet. If a temporary edging or summer screen is wanting for any particular bed, it may also be employed for this purpose.

The seeds of good flax are short, plump, thick, very oily, and of a bright brown colour; the best season for sowing them in most gardens, is February or the beginning of March, when the general crop of hardy annuals are put in; but if the ground be sandy and naturally dry, they should be sown in October or November. No more attention than what is necessary for the other flowers in the garden, which is keeping down all weeds while in the seed-leaf with a hoe, will be requisite for this; as soon as the seed begins to ripen, and the plants turn yellow, pull the whole up by the roots, and lay it in bundles exposed to the full sun, if the weather is fine, to dry completely. Immediately after, it must be laid to macerate in a ditch or pond of water, and kept under by a long piece of timber floating upon it. From five to ten days is necessary for its immersion; and after the fifth, it must be examined daily, taking especial care that it does not lie too long. As soon as ever you find that the fibres are sufficiently macerated, to separate from one another kindly, spread it out to dry upon a new-mown meadow. When dry, it must be again collected into bundles, and either sent to the flax-dresser, or prepared for spinning at home by the gardener's wife.

In many districts this operation is well understood, and if carefully performed, home-spun linen from such flax will last twice the time of most of the Irish linen that is now to he purchased in our shops.

I believe it is a great error to pull the flax so green as is commonly practised, and a still greater to soak it in water before it is previously dried; for the fibres require twice the time to macerate sufficiently for separation in the dressing; a process by which they are considerably weakened.

FOR THE TRADESMAN, OR COMMERCIAL MAGAZINE.

DESCRIPTION OF GIBRALTAR IN ITS PRESENT STATE.

AT a time when Gibraltar, that hitherto impregnable fortress, is likely to attract the attention of that tyrant of the continent, as soon

as he has overrun the different provinces of Spain, the following account of that important place to British trade and commerce in the Mediterranean, we trust, cannot fail to be interesting to our readers. The commandant of this fortress has at present perhaps a more important task to perform, than that which fell to the lot of the immortal Elliott; as he has not only to guard against the open force of war, but against all the chicanery and treachery for which the Corsican has so long been famous. The population of that fortress is a mongrel breed of all the surrounding nations, and there can be no doubt that France, even at present, has many partizans and even emissaries there; nor is it less to be depended on that she will strain every nerve to possess herself of it, not only from a desire to injure us, but from that necessity which Buonaparte must feel not to let us have footing in Spain.

Gibraltar is 5200 varas (yards) long, and 1500 broad, in the widest part; the perpendicular height is 500, and the circumference, including the moles, angles, and bays, 13,200. The rock is completely beset with batteries, thrown up at all points where they could not render the ascent completely inaccessible; so that from Europa Point, which advances farthest into the sea on the south side, to the highest part of the rock, which is that of the north (at about two miles distance from the other), there is not a single point which has not been put in a defensible condition. On the side nearest Spain, the internal fortifications, made since the time Gibraltar was besieged by the combined armies of France and Spain, are astonishing. These improvements are due to General O'Hara, the late governor; a great number of workmen were employed about it for eight years, and doubtless with immense expence. To give an idea of the labour, it will be sufficient to mention that the excavations, effected by the force of gun-powder, in the centre of the mountain and in the solid rock, form vaults of such height and extent, that, during a siege, they can contain the whole garrison.

These caverns, the most considerable of which is the Hall of St. George, communicate with the other batteries, established all along the mountain, by a winding road, and passable throughout on horseback, which must have cost an immense sum of money. It is impossible to restrain your admiration at the execution of so bold, I may add, so useless an undertaking, since the lower batteries, situated on the same point, on the exterior of the rock, are a sufficient defence, without this collection of cannons suspended in the air in the higher batteries, the

fire of which enfilade all the aproaches of the enemy along the ground, while the others direct their fire from a height, and do but little execution.

On returning towards Europa Point, as you enter the town, your attention is again struck by considerable fortifications, barracks, magazines, and batteries, placed every where that the nature of the ground will admit. On the highest point of land the tower of St. George was built, under the direction of General O'Hara. His intention was to raise it to a sufficient height to command the whole of Cadiz, and observe all that passed in that port; but the English government did not approve of the undertaking, which is therefore left in an unfinished state, and O'Hara has been obliged to defray the expences already incurred out of his own pocket.

Along the mountain you perceive several grottos, or natural excavations; that of St. Michael is the most famous: the height of the entrance is 437¼ varas above the level of the sea. The cavern below is at least 70 feet; a rope is fastened round your body as you descend; it contains columns of crystalization and stalactites, imitating all the orders of architecture. The water filtering on all sides has formed on the walls, and around, a profusion of ornaments of every sort.

A hundred paces from its gate is another beautiful cavern, 65 varas square, and the vault 21 varas high. On the right is an opening, or second excavation, adorned with the same caprices of nature, but with so much regularity that it has the appearance of a temple. Perhaps it was formerly made use of for consulting some oracle, probably that of Hercules, who was the principal divinity of the place, as well as of the cave in the promontory of Ampelusia, on the coast of Africa. From the entry of this cavern you discover the whole of the bay of Gibraltar; you command a view of the country houses, the flower and kitchen-gardens, which the inhabitants have formed, one above the other, on the side of the mountain, up to the royal road, and the public walk, extending for about half a mile from the town of Gibraltar to the new town on the south.

It is impossible to do justice to the taste and magnificence of the English, on seeing the care with which they have embellished the rock; they have spared nothing to cover it with trees and flowers, to support the earth with walls and props, to cut a number of roads through the solid rock, and make them passable on horseback and in carriages up to the very top; they have even sown some artificial meadows for their flocks; an excellent example to the Spaniards, who

could obtain, with much more facility, the same advantages in their fertile country. From the grotto of St. Michael you discover the magazines, the batteries, and the new town: on the south, the marine hospital, a handsome and commodious building. The view extends over a number of country-houses, to some of which beautiful gardens are attached; in time these new buildings will form a town as considerable as that of Gibraltar. Near, there are eight magnificent cisterns, large enough to contain 40,000 tons of water. These cisterns are bomb-proof; they receive all the water which flows down the sides of the mountain, previously purified in coppers erected for the purpose. The English have formed a project of building over these cisterns an edifice to keep every thing necessary for victualling ships; and the hospital as well as the artillery-park, being near, they could then instantly refit a squadron with every thing it might want.

Before you arrive at the south gate, you observe a large and handsome square, surrounded with trees, now called the field of Mars, formerly the Red Sand; the size is such, that the 6000 men, of which the garrison commonly consists, can perform their manœuvres without inconvenience. It is there the guard always musters, and on Sundays and holidays they make it the grand parade. The English troops carry neatness and military precision to such excess, that it appears inconvenient and ridiculous to those who have served in armies less particular in these respects. It is the same with the regularity of their buildings, and the useless labour of their defensive works; they have more the appearance of the park and palace of a sovereign than a fortified town; the lines, embrasures, and keys of the arches are cut with inconceivable regularity, in large and hard blocks of stone, and all the military utensils are brought to similar perfection. Notwithstanding the multiplied means of defence in Gibraltar, the place is not impregnable on the sea-side; and the King's Bastion, on which M. D'Arcon directed his floating-batteries, seems to be the true point of attack. Since the last siege they have encreased the works of this line; but such as they now are, they are not proportioned to the others, and the means that might be opposed to it, if the besiegers were masters of the sea, and directed the enterprize better.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL REPORT.

Foreign.

Russia.—By a gentleman lately arrived from Russia, we learn that produce was at very high prices, and from its dearness it was inferred that the Baltic would continue open to trade with the same facilities of intercourse that existed during the preceding year; whatever may be the views of the Russians, the adventurers here seem to have no encouragement from the state of the market as to one of the most essential articles. A great number of holders of hemp lately waited on the navy board to tender a quantity of this commodity for the use of government, and although the proposals were as low as 72*l.* 10*s.* none of them were accepted. The same gentleman acquaints us that no apprehensions were entertained of a war between Russia and France, and that no preparations were making by Alexander in the contemplation of such an event.

By an ukase lately published in Russia it is declared, that all books and maps whatever may be imported without the usual certificates of origin.

In the same ukase she has acknowledged all her evils, and has even proclaimed a national bankruptcy in substance as follows:—"The bank notes are declared a national debt; all the territorial riches of the empire are considered as mortgaged for the bank notes; but their number is not to be augmented. In order to reimburse the national debt, a loan shall be opened, the conditions of which shall be fixed by a particular decree. As the cessation of the issuing of bank notes will diminish the resources of the crown, the most rigid economy has been introduced into all the branches of the administration. The expences of the current year has been reduced more than 20 millions, and will be yet further reduced by the suspension of further works. Now, in order to meet the necessary expences of government, it is requisite to adopt measures to bring back the imports to the same real value they were of previous to the discredit of bank notes. To this and the poll tax shall be two rubles, besides each peasant shall pay, in addition to the land-tax already existing, an extra tax of three rubles in governments of the first class, two and a half in those of the second, and two in the third. Countrymen keeping open shops in towns shall pay from 25 to 100 roubles. The impost upon capital in trade shall be augmented one-half per cent. Salt, which the crown sold at 40 copecks

the pound is to be a rouble. Each pood of copper shall pay to the crown a new duty of three roubles at the custom-house. The rix-dollar shall be valued at four roubles." The other dispositions are relative to the augmentation on stamps. So much for French alliance!!

Holland.—Of late the commercial affairs of Holland seem to wear a more favourable aspect than they have done for the last two months, as a proof of which, it appears that the stocks are much higher than they have been for some time past; and vessels are now allowed to sail from one port to another, whether in the possession of French troops or not; and no obstruction has been given to the departure of vessels laden with grain, several of which have lately entered our ports, and many more are daily expected.

Spain.—From the situation of affairs in Spain the exchange at Gibraltar has risen to 40, being a rise of 10½ per cent. Under this circumstance no business has been done there but for money, little of which has been to spare; and Manchester goods are laying in the warehouses unsold to the amount of five millions sterling, without any demand whatever.

From every part of Spain where it has been possible to make shipments, vast consignments have been made to this country, as the near approach of the French brings on a total annihilation of trade and property. But, however there may be felt a glut of the produce of that country for a short time in the British markets, the ensuing stagnation which must necessarily occur, will ere long not only occasion a rise in all the articles, but an actual scarcity.

Sweden.—The prices of colonial produce continue to rise in Denmark, Sweden, and the north of Germany, in proportion as the opinion of a rupture between this country and America gains ground: the Danes have of late gained vast sums by the free importation of American produce; and the speculation formed between them and the Russians on the one part, and the Americans on the other, for the ensuing season are such, that the continental markets will be overstocked with coffee, sugar, indigo, and all other colonial products.

Denmark.—The Danish government has found it necessary in some degree to relax the severity of its decrees against foreign commercial intercourse. Molasses are in future allowed to be imported into the duchies of Sleswic and Holstein.

The last accounts received from Copenhagen state, that British manufactures were very scarce, from the rigorous enforcement of the decrees; but colonial produce was tolerably plentiful, on account of several importations from Sweden, and the frequent condemnation of neutrals

laden with those commodities upon the slightest pretences; appeals to the superior courts were in vain, as they uniformly confirmed the sentence of the subordinate tribunals. The exchange was at so low a rate as 400, so that the Danish dollar of 4*s.* was not worth more than 18*d.*

In many parts of Germany sugar has been most part of the winter, 4*s.* sterling per pound; but it fell 30 per cent. the moment it was known that the English convoy, which entered the Baltic in December, had landed a considerable quantity of that article in the Prussian ports, whence it is conveyed into the interior of Germany.

The transhipments of British manufactures, colonial produce, and other goods from the ports of Stockholm and Gottenburg to ports in the Baltic, under the licences, by order of council of the British government; has been lately a very good speculation for the Swedish merchants, but it has been the means of enhancing the prices of all those articles considerably to the consumer, through that circuitous mode of receiving them, and of a considerable disadvantage to the British merchant, who otherwise would have had the sending of his goods direct to the Prussian and Russian ports in the Baltic.

South America.—The following letter shews the real state of trade in that part of the world:—"On my arrival at this port I found it shut against all foreign vessels. The Spaniards are very alert in looking after smugglers, so that it has been impossible to transact business with any degree of safety. A gentleman of my acquaintance lately lost 100,000 dollars by a seizure. About three weeks after my arrival the viceroy was compelled, through want of cash, and with the concurrence of the junta, to open the harbour, but only partially, to British vessels; this, however is considered only as a temporary measure.

Trade is very bad indeed, and I think of winding up my concerns as soon as possible and returning to England, fully persuaded that no good can be done by remaining here. The expence of living is exorbitant; I pay 150*l.* per annum rent for a house, and may pay much more."—So much for South American speculation.

Domestic.

The exportation of cotton wool has long been restricted in our commercial licences; but, from the great importation thereof for a considerable length of time past, a committee of the merchants trading to the Brazils lately had an interview with the lords of trade on the subject of the exportation of cotton wool, to which their lordships acceded, and have determined that licences should be granted for the exporta-

tion of cotton to all such ports as are not declared to be in a state of actual blockade. These licences are to be granted on the naming of the port to whence consigned, and the name of the ship taking the same, provided that the cotton shall be actually shipped within two months from the grant of such licence; these licences to be clear of all fees, paying only the usual stamp of 1*l.* 10*s.*

We are pleased to observe from our Lancashire and Yorkshire correspondents that the cotton markets are daily improving; at Manchester, twist is in unprecedented demand, in consequence of which it has created a rise of 6*s.* per bundle. Indeed, goods generally, throughout our manufacturing towns are in considerable demand, and at increased prices.

Numbers of vessels are now loading in the river Thames for ports of France, with cargoes of tin, train oil, logwood, and indigo, all of which are in great request on the continent, the consequence of which is those articles are advanced in price.

Several considerable failures have happened in the city from speculation in the Baltic trade, and not a little affected by the refusal of government to accept of any contract for hemp when even offered at 72*l.*

AGRICULTURAL REPORT.

THE late very severe cold weather has given the wheats a rather indifferent hue, indeed they appear to be at a stand; but they are not considered to be injured by the insect, as is frequently the case at this time of the year. Vetches also make but a small progress. Through the wet for some time this last month, and too much frost, the planting of the beans and peas is not yet finished; in consequence of which those crops will be rather late. Should the season continue dry for a time, it will be highly beneficial to the lands in general. Turnips are much gone off. Rye-grass and clover make no figure at present, and the sowing of spring crops have scarcely commenced. Grain of every description continues high, and good seed oats much in demand. Stock, both fat and lean, in great demand. Wool rather brisk.

PROVINCIAL OCCURRENCES AND MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION

Sussex improvement of fattening Cattle.—In the fattening of oxen, it is not unusual to find excellent contrivances to save labour in attendance: stalls, or sheds of flint, requisite for the number of cattle, are frequently contrived (as at Mr. Thomas Elman's, of Shoreham), with keelers in each stall for watering, with troughs of communication to convey the water from a pump in the farm-yard to the general trough at the outside of the building, which is again conveyed to each stall; so that all the trouble of tying and untying, and driving to water, is avoided. Each stall is sufficient to contain two oxen, five feet room being allowed to each.

The pleasing manner which the farmers adopt throughout a great part of this country, and especially in the western division, of stacking their corn on circular stone piers, cannot be admired too much. It requires some art and attention in the construction of these stacks, and nice management to adjust them in their truest proportion. This appears to be the best method of preserving wheat; and it is no small recommendation, that it most effectually prevents all vermin from lodging in the sheaves, and hereby obviating incalculable losses to the owner.

Thrashing-machine invented by a poor watch-maker of Suffolk.—A poor watch-maker, residing at Bungay, in Suffolk, lately contrived a most ingenious machine for thrashing corn, to be worked by hand. Two years he devoted to the completion of his undertaking, and having brought it to perfection, found himself under the necessity of selling it by public auction to defray his expences, or in case it should succeed, to assist him in making others. It was advertised in a Norwich paper of the 3d ultimo, and offered for trial in a barn near the town, for which purpose he had procured different kinds of corn, in order to decide on the work it would perform: what must have been the disappointment and vexation of the poor man, on discovering about a day or two before the sale, that some evil disposed person had broken into the barn and maliciously destroyed his principal wheels; thus blasting his hopes and the fruits of all his labour and invention in one moment. He has a wife and a large family of children who look to him for support.

New method of saving ship-wrecked mariners.—Captain Manby lately tried some new experiments on Lowestoft beach, before the committee of the life-boat belonging to that place, and a large number of gentlemen and sailors assembled for that purpose. The plan pursued was, fixing two anchors at the distance of 140 yards from the shore, to which a rope was suspended, and in the middle a buoy was placed; from a mortar a barbed shot was fired, which passed over the rope that was fastened between the anchors; the tighter the rope was pulled that was attached to the barbed shot, the faster it held; by this means a boat may be hauled over the surf that is formed on the Lowestoft coast.

A most important circumstance has since occurred to prove the utility of this plan. On Saturday January 13th, at two o'clock, a Dutch vessel from Liverpool, laden with salt, was seen in the greatest distress, near Pakefield; she drew near the shore in a place of the most difficult access; the crew consisted of eight persons, seven of whom were saved entirely by the firing of the shot from the mortar, and thus preserving a communication with the shore. The vessel became a wreck in a very few minutes after six men and one boy landed. The captain unfortunately perished.

Substitute for Gold.—Mr. Mesure of Craven-buildings, Drury-lane, having been, in consequence of the great scarcity and exorbitant price of gold, induced to turn his attention to the discovery of a substitute for that metal, has at length announced the complete success of his exertions. The metal which is the result of them approaching nearer to the qualities of gold, except in weight, than any other yet discovered. It takes a most beautiful polish, is less liable to tarnish or to be scratched than gold, and though very ductile, it is capable of being rendered extremely strong and elastic: It is peculiarly adapted for watch cases, snuff boxes, and all the variety of trinkets for which gold is at present employed: the inventor supplies the unwrought metal at a very reasonable rate.

MONTHLY RETROSPECT.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

Considerable speculation has lately occurred from the arrival of a flag of truce from France, and in consequence of which stocks rose 2 per cent. and reports were industriously circulated, that one dispatch was from Bounaparte himself to his Majesty, and the other from Champagny (Duke of Cadore) to our Minister for foreign affairs; but this soon dwindled down to more probable circumstances, that the dispatches were only addressed to the transport board, relative to the exchange of prisoners. Be it as it may, we may remember that the late overtures of a pacific tendency originated through the same channel, and it is not to be doubted, but the Emperor wishes to make peace with this country, not from satiety of blood and conquest, or from feeling the interests of his subjects, but from a predilection that he cannot for ever carry on universal warfare with safety and honour to himself.

Amongst the commercial rumours, it has been stated, that Buonaparte has proposed to this government, to admit into his ports colonial produce, on which he has lately laid a double duty, provided we consent to admit wine and brandies from France, on the usual terms.

A new ministry has been several times framed by the different daily prints; but, however discomfited the present rulers have recently been, by their bad success both abroad and at home, they still retain their posts. A chapter of the order of the garter has been held at Windsor, at which the Marquis Wellesley has been invested with the blue ribbon, vacant by the death of the Duke of Portland.

Strong reinforcements from the Guards and marching regiments, have been sent during the month to Portugal and Spain, but it is doubtful if they will arrive at their port of destination, in time to be of any avail to a sinking cause.

On March 15th, the pleasing intelligence arrived of the taking of Guadaloupe, by the forces under Lieutenant-General Sir George Beckwith, on Feb. 6, after a short but severe contest; the loss on the part of the troops being 1 lieutenant, 3 serjeants, 41 rank and file killed, and about 250 wounded. The gazette being of too great length to give in its proper shape, we have selected the following particulars therefrom:—

The Expedition having rendezvoused at the appointed places about the 24th of January, proceeded to Guadaloupe in two divisions. Ernouf, the governor of Guadaloupe, had been apprised of our intention, and had concentrated all his force at Basseterre. The first division under the commander in chief, landed on the 28th, at the village of St. Mary, and soon after advanced towards Trois Rivieres; the second division landed to the North of Basseterre, under General Harcourt.

After some skirmishes, a general engagement took place on the 3d of February, in which the French troops behaved with great steadiness, but were unable to withstand the vigour and gallantry of our troops, and were defeated with the loss of five hundred men. In the evening of that day the reserve, under General Wale, having turned and beaten the enemy's left in the mountains, Ernouf's position became so critical, that, on the mornings of the 4th and 5th, he hoisted flags of truce at all his points. On the 5th, General Harcourt and commodore Ballard, met Colonel Fugos D'Alirmar, and agreed upon terms of capitulation, which were ratified early on the morning of the 6th. There was no opportunity for the display of our naval force afloat, but bodies of seamen and marines were landed and attached to the different d visions of the army, where they exhibited those gallant and energetic exertions which have always distinguished them. The conduct of the troops was highly meritorious, and every part of the service, both in its plan and execution, appears to have been conceived and performed with a judgment and zeal highly creditable to his Majesty's Government, and the gallant officers and troops so successfully employed in wresting from the enemy the last of her colonies.

It is to be observed that the brunt of the action was chiefly sustained by the regiment of York Rangers, and in honour to their gallant behaviour, we cannot refrain from inserting a letter received from one of their officers.

"*Mount Manual, Feb.* 5, 1810.

"I have not written since we landed, for want of paper; nor shall I at this moment forward you any detail of our operations from the commencement, but confine myself to the last eventful and glorious day.

"On the 3d, about one o'clock, arrangements were made for an attack on one of the enemy's advanced posts, that had several guns, from which we had been annoyed the whole day. At three the same day, intelligence arrived that there was a pass near us, defended by 500 of the enemy, strongly entrenched, the road leading to it only

admitting one man to pass, and with the greatest difficulty, being nearly perpendicular. We sallied forth to the attack, 600 in number, headed by brigadier-general Wale. Captain Stark's company led on, arriving at a deep rapid, but narrow river, with a bad stony bottom, where we found the enemy strongly posted behind their first breast-work, and instantly they commenced a heavy and well directed galling fire; the high trees of the wood, which formed an excellent ambush, were also lined with riflemen, m whence they had a full view, and took steady aim. Captain Stark wheeled round, and turned them, by getting on the left of the work, and carrying it with the bayonet. The whole of us were now regularly closed up; the fire was dreadful; the men and officers fell more rapidly than at any of the attacks I have had the good fortune to be present at. The advantage the enemy had over us was great; *they* had their front *guarded*, *we* were all *exposed*, and had to advance up a hill, almost perpendicular, where large trees, boughs, and every obstruction was thrown in our way. General Wale, Major Henderson, and Quarter-master General Grey, were soon wounded, Lieutenant Symons and Copley killed. General Wale sat down under a tree, and sounded with one of our bugles, the advance. The French thought it was a retreat, and beat the advance; then we charged in a style of gallantry never exceeded, beat them back, and on advancing found a second and third strong work, all of which we successively carried under the most dreadfully hot fire I ever experienced; there Lieutenants Martineux and Gregg were killed, and Captains Stark, Darling, Blosses, and Ware, wounded. Every inch of the hill was disputed with courage and intrepidity, that evinced the importance of the post; at length, about one hour after sun-set, they *retreated*, leaving us masters of the field, dearly bought indeed: a shot took off my cap, and I had a dreadful fall down a precipice into a rivulet, with about 20 of my company and Captain Wilde on the top of me; this was the only injury I sustained. At one moment the fire was so hot, that the whole of our line was astonished, and many of other companies had got intermixed with ours. To continue, we pushed on across the field of battle, and it being a dark night, not able to ascertain the officers' persons, resolved to halt, and wait day-light. We did so, and kept the most profound silence. Here we occasionally heard the French sentinels pass the word. The night was cold and some slight showers fell. I had, thank God! a little rum in my canteen, without which I could not have supported the night through. At day-break we most fortunately found the remnant of the regiment had providentially taken the same road; and as if it was ordained for us to arrive at the summit of glory, we found ourselves in a strong position near the battery which had originally been the General's intention to storm. We assembled all the officers, and resolved to go back for a few moments to the place of action; we did so, leaving a strong guard on the spot, collected the wounded, and left a party to bury the dead. Fortune again favoured us; for our *faithful guide* was found only slightly wounded in the face (one guide was killed). The remains of Captains Mathewson, Wilde, and Bird's companies, amounting to 100 men only, under the command of Captain Mathewson, then agreed to storm the battery with bayonets only; the guide led on by a road to

their rear, by which the French thought we could not have passed—(their own declaration). We darted on them like lions! and in ten minutes perfected our object within sight of our commander in chief, who was on a distant hill looking on with all his Staff. We had not been one minute before we resolved to leave a small guard and push down the hill to the principal gate, where I am sorry to say the whole army had been repulsed the day before. Down we went, not a single shot fired; took the w ole guard and gate; 200 prisoners were taken by us in the short space of a few minutes: the original attack was anticipated by the above-mentioned guide, who offered, at the hazard of his life to lead the regiment, if the General would go in the day time. Our loss consists of 4 lieutenants, 6 serjeants, 14 corporals, 48 privates, killed; 1 brigadier-general, 1 major, 1 staff, 4 captains, and upwards of 100 non-commissioned officers and men wounded. The *honour* gained by the Royal York I prefer participating to the acquirement 10,000l. although you know I am not over-burthened with affluence; in truth, affluence to a soldier who loves his country and the character of a soldier, is the heaviest baggage he can march with. Pray offer every sentiment of esteem and affection to my mother and family, on whose account only I hope for a little prize money."

In the court of common council of the City of London, has again been brought forward the subject of the present state of Smithfield market, when there was a majority of three in favour of the removal, which we understand, will be immediately carried into effect; to the no small chagrin of the occupiers of rotten houses in the neighbourhood of the old market.

The Imperial Parliament has not yet closed the investigation of the expedition to the Scheldt.

The following is a summary of the most material business transacted in both houses since our last.

On the 1st of March, a petition was presented from certain linen and cotton manufacturers in the county of Fife, praying for certain drawbacks on brimstone, &c.

On the 5th, an account was ordered to be laid before the House of the quantity of sugar wash made during the last year, together with an account of the spirits distilled therefrom.

On the same day in the House of Commons, there was majority of thirty-three against the ministers, and for the resolution of Mr. Whitbread, concerning the conduct of the Earl of Chatham. On the 6th of March, Lord Percy obtained leave to bring in a bill to regulate the loading of ships with coals at the port of Newcastle-on-Tyne.

On the 12th. The bill prohibiting distillation from grain was read a third time, and afterwards received the royal assent.

14th. An account of the progress of the distillation of spirits in the Lowlands of Scotland, was brought up and ordered to be printed.

The same day the gas-light bill was read a second time, after a variety of debates pro and con.

On the 6th. Sir Charles Price obtained leave to bring in a bill for the erection of a new market in the city of London for the sale of cattle, and for the removal of the present one in Smithfield.

On 22d. A bill was brought in for the continuation of the Irish sugar drawback.

The 22d, was the day appointed for the completion of the plan of the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the funding of 800,000*l.* Exchequer bills; the subscription was instantly filled, and many persons who were not present at its opening, were shut out; amongst this number were many of the very first-rate men of money, and some who had sold stock for the purpose of purchasing Exchequer bills for the occasion, who will lose in the transfer of property in most instances not less than 5 per cent.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

FRANCE. The grand nation always pleased with variety has new scenes waiting the commands of their Emperor and King; from *pageantry* to *murder* and from *murder* to *pageantry*, the Frenchman skips, with delight to the tune of Ca Ira, and any thing that is a *fête* is sufficient. The murder of the gallant Hoffer has sprinkled the road to the Temple of Hymen, for the nuptials of Buonaparte with Maria Louisa, Princess of Austria, and the French papers have of late been occupied with no other but the grand preparations, accounts of the exchange of miniatures, complimentary letters sent and received by France and Austria, and the departure and arrival of all the petty and insignificant Princes and Princesses to prepare as figurantes to this approaching raree-show. The marriage was to have taken place on the 29th ultimo, at St. Cloud.

Letters from Paris to the 18th ult. confirm the previous accounts of the displeasure of Buonaparté against America, and state that he no sooner became acquainted with the conferences that lately took place between Marquis Wellesley and Mr. Pinckney, and their peaceable tendency, than he issued a decree ordering the immediate seizure of American ships, cargoes, and property of every description. Copies of this decree, it is asserted, were sent to all the ports of France, Holland, Spain, and Italy, before it had been published, in order to prevent the removal of goods or the escape of vessels; and it was also reported that General Armstrong was preparing to depart from Paris.

HANOVER has been formally united to the kingdom of Westphalia, and on that occasion Jerome issued a proclamation addressed to his new subjects, in which he tells them that his exalted brother has transferred to him all his rights and claims on their country; that they are henceforth to enjoy "the incalculable advantage" of being governed by him, and will thereby be protected from all evils; that they cannot be too thankful for the tranquillity and happiness they are about to enjoy, and which they have deserved by their loyalty and good dispositions.

This document, so insulting to a brave and faithful people, is dated 1st of March: till the beginning of next year, no alteration is to take place in the administration of the country. It is to be governed by M. Palgi, in the quality of Intendant General.

PORTUGAL. We have received but a melancholy account of the state of affairs in this kingdom, and the whole of the country appears to be in imminent danger of being overwhelmed by the enemy; and that the

British and native forces, weakened by the detachments for the protection of Cadiz, are in no condition to make any effectual resistance against the invaders.

HOLLAND still remains under suspence of what is ultimately to be its fate from the will of its ruler, and is anxiously waiting the return of King Louis from the capital of France, being fearful that like the fable of the frogs, they may have a stork sent them, exchanged for a log of wood as king.

Private letters from Turkey mention, that the English Envoy at Constantinople Mr. Adair, has been requested to take his departure, and that orders had already been given to strengthen the forts of the Dardanelles. It is also added, that negociations are carrying on for peace between Russia and Turkey, under the mediation of France; we also learn that the English squadron under Sir Samuel Hood has passed the Dardanelles, in order to act against the Russians in the Black Sea.

The Grand Vizier in the name of the Grand Seignior, has addressed a proclamation to such of the inhabitants of Russian Poland as are friendly to the Mahometan persuasion, exhorting them to assist in repelling the efforts which were making by Russia to destroy it.

SPAIN, although not entirely subjugated to the yoke of the Corsican, is fast approaching to that crisis. The whole province of Grenada has been subdued, and even the conquest thereof was not attended with more difficulty than the passage of that strong barrier between the two countries, the Sierra Morena. Malaga, the last town that submitted, however, made a considerable resistance to the force under Sebastiana, who took the town by the charge, and the horrors that ensued, we must be excused from apalling our readers with. By this time all communication between Cadiz and Gibraltar, and the rest of Spain is completely cut off.

The celebrated Hoffer was tried at Mantua by a court-martial on the 21st February last, and condemned to die. His sentence was executed in the presence of a vast concourse of spectators; so much for French proclamations promising general amnesty!

The Spaniards, however, assisted by the British from Gibraltar, have destroyed the whole range of forts from Malaga to the gut of Gibraltar, not one place of strength has been left that can facilitate the projects of the enemy against Gibraltar.

Cadiz still holds out, and the British General Stewart reckons the place impregnable; the army there amounts to 21,700 men, of whom 16,500 are Spaniards, 4000 English and 1200 Portuguese; and the town is reported to be well provisioned and healthy, although the population usually 50,000, is now increased to 160,000.

AMERICA seems much more pacific than formerly, and it is pretty confidently asserted, that the ministers of the two nations have nearly determined upon an amicable adjustment; and the minds of the people are prepared thereto by the American papers being now much more

moderate than formerly; and in some instances they have even noticed the British Government by a theme of praise. This will be more fully seen by an extract from a Philadelphia paper.

On the 12th of February Mr. Macons *new* non-intercourse bill was carried in the House of Representatives. This is a modification of the old one, and seems chiefly leveled against the French and Spanish privateers.

"*Philadelphia, January* 9.

"CAPTURES.—Those who are in the habit of comparing the injuries which we receive from Great Britain and France, respectively, and who always find the balance greatly in favour of France, are requested to attend to the following statement, which any one can substantiate for himself by looking at the books. By this it appears that the amount of American property captured by the French since our embargo was raised, is more than *five times* as much as that captured by Great Britain, though her power on the ocean, to that of Great Britain, is not as one to fifty. Of the captures made by the British, *one-third* of the amount has been already restored, short as the time has been. Of those made by the French, *not a cent*, has been restored, except such as has been recaptured *by the pirates of the ocean*, and by them returned to its lawful owners. It is a curious fact that these *sea robbers* against whom we are called upon to draw the sword for the depredations which they have committed upon our commerce and neutral rights; it is a curious fact, I say, that these *sea robbers* have wrested from France and restored to us a sum considerably greater than the whole amount of the captures made from us by themselves. When it is further considered that the immense amount of Danish captures ought also, to be placed to the account of France, it will not be difficult to strike the balance. It is much to be wished that similar extracts were made from the books of the insurance companies in the other commercial cities:

An authentic statement of the captures of our commerce by the Belligerent Powers of Europe since the raising of the embargo last March, as insured in the nine public offices in this city.

Amount of captures by the British, 10,000*l.* whereof 30,000 dollars has been restored.

Amount of captures by the French, including one vessel plundered and burned at sea,* 158,420 dollars; 38,500 whereof has been recaptured by the British, and restored on salvage.

Amount of captures by the Danes, 209,542 dollars; 94,500 whereof has been released on paying charges, which in some instances amount to a species of ransom.

Amount captured by the Spaniards, 10,000 dollars; whereof no tidings since captured.

The above includes no part of the late sequestrations in Italy, or the rumoured French captures in the Indian seas.—Philadelphia, Dec. 29.

* *Or, as they would say at Washington, "a trespass on our commercial rights."*

BANKRUPTS.

BANKRUPTCIES.
(The Solicitors' Names are between Parentheses.)

ABBEY Jonathan, late of Budge row, Cannon street. (Mr. Hamilton, Tavistock row, Covent garden.

Aldrige J. Bowling street, Westminster, taylor. (Mr. Fryett, Milbank street.

Allen J. Great Sutton street, Clerkenwell, surveyor. (Mr. Godmond, New Bridge street, Blackfriars.

Ballard J. Birmingham, coal and corn dealer. (Mr. Rudson, Well close square.

Baker J. Token house yard, Lothbury, merchant. (Mr. Tilson, Chatham place, Blackfriars.

Barnes J. Malton, York, linen draper. (Mr. Walker, Malton; and Mr. Lambert, Gray's inn square.

Barron T. Great St. Thomas Apostle, warehouseman. (Messrs. Foulkes, Longdill, and Co. Holborn court, Gray's inn.

Barlow T. Strand, mercer. (Mr. Beetham, Bouverie street, Fleet street.

Bear J. Sudbury, butcher. (Mr. Frost, Sudbury; and Mr. Fairbank, Ely place.

Bennett W. Ludworth, Glossop, Derby, victualler. (Mr. Baddeley, Stockport; and Milne and Parry, Temple.

Bendy Simon, Bow common, soap maker. (Messrs. Smith and Henderson, Goodman's-fields.

Birch John, and Luer Luerson, Hoxton town, colour manufacturers and dealers. (Messrs. D. Busson and Son, Crown-court, Aldersgate street.

Bishop J. jun. St. Paul's, Shadwell, victualler. (Mr. Hill, King David lane, Shadwell.

Brookes J. Whitchurch, Salop, shoemaker. (Mr. Watson, Whitchurch; and Mr. Blackstock, St. Mildred's court, Poultry.

Brown T. Shoreditch, and Blackman street, Southwark, mercer. (Messrs. Kibblewhite and Co. Gray's inn place.

Button J. Manchester, inn keeper. (Mr. Law, Manchester; or Mr. Hurd, King's Bench walk, Temple.

Butcher Wm. Brighton, plumber. (Mr. Goode, Howland street, Fitzroy square.

Chapman R. Thatcham, Berks, shop keeper. (Mr. J. Biggs, Reading; and Mr. Eyre, Gray's inn square.

Clayton J. jun. Leeds, woolstapler.

Clipson W. Lawrence lane, wine and spirit merchant. (Mr. Allingham, St. John's square.

Clive T. and S. Richardson, Tokenhouse yard, merchants. (Messrs. Palmer and Co. Copthal court.

Cooper J. Chester, wheelwright. (Mr. G. Orred, Liverpool; and Messrs. Cooper and Lowe, Chancery lane.

Cowgill Jos. Henry Sandiford, and John Barlow, Manchester, callico printers. (Mr. Nabb, Manchester; and Swale and Co. Staple's inn.

Coe J. Shiere, Guildford, tanner. (Mr. Booth, Fenchurch buildings.

Cox W. Chas. Knutsford, Chester, inn keeper. (Mr. Damvill, Knutsford; and Wright and Pickering, Temple.

Croudace John, Hull, cheese factor. Mr. John Anderson, Hull; and Mr. Ralph Ellis, Cursitor street.

Curtis M. East Coker, Somerset, twine spinner. (Mr. King, Bedford row; and S. and J. Wald, Yeovil.

Davidson J. Brentford, linen draper. (Mr. Tilson Chatham place, Blackfriars.

Daniels J. Manchester and Liverpool, dealer in earthen ware. (Mr. Davies, Liverpool; and Mr. Meadowcroft, Gray's inn.

Davies T. Farwin, Chester, corn factor. (Mr. Garnet, Chester; and Mr. Huxley, Temple.

Davis J. Church lane, St. George's in the East, horse dealer. (Mr. Davis, Lothbury.

Dedwith Margaret, Slanaber, merchant. (Mr. S. Humphreys, Chester; and Mr. Blackstock, London.

Davis J. Merthyr Tydvil, Glamorgan, druggist. (Mr. Meyrick, Merthyr Tydvil.

Davies Thos. Chester, glover and dealer. (Mr. J. Garnet, Chester; and Mr. Huxley, Temple.

Davey Edw. Wm. Paradise street, Rotherhithe, ship joiner and dealer. (Mr. Sheppherd, Dean street, Canterbury square.

Dove James, of Wexham house, Buckingham, money scrivener and dealer. (Mr. Mayhew, Symond's inn, Chancery lane.

Dowsing J. Harwich, grocer. (Mr. Taylor, Southampton buildings, Chancery lane.

Drakeford J. Coleshill, Warwick, butcher. (Mr. Palmer, Coleshill, and Kinderley, Long, and Co. Gray's inn.

Edwards W. Wootton-under-Edge, shoemaker. (Mr. James, Gray's inn square.

Fleming J. Blackburn, Lancaster, cotton manufacturer. (Messrs. Milne, Manchester; and Milne and Parry, Temple.

Fowler Thos. of Tiverton, Devon, shop keeper. (Mr. Randall, Tiverton; and Mr. Lys, Took's court, Chancery lane.

Forster R. Kingsland road, Middlesex, silkman. (Mr. Gregory, wax chandlers' hall, Maiden lane, Cheapside.

Franco Moses, Spital square, insurance broker. (Mr. Rivington, Fenchurch buildings, Fenchurch street.

Gaffney Michael, Liverpool, cotton merchant. (Mr. T. Avison, Liverpool.

Gayleard John, Richmond, farrier. (Mr. Empson, Great Suffolk street.

Garnett John, and Fred. Speyer, of Huddersfield, merchants and dealers. (Mr. Battye, Huddersfield, and Chancery lane.

Grove J. Great May's buildings, St. Martin's lane, dairyman. (Mr. Cunningham, New North street, Red Lion square.

Hall Richard, of Liverpool, grocer, dealer, and chapman. (Mr. Woods, Lord street, Liverpool; and Mr. Blackstock, St. Mildred's court.

Harrison J. Stoke upon Trent, Stratford, potter. (Mr. Vernon, Stone; and Messrs. Willis, Fairthorne, and Co. Warnford court.

Hask W. Hampstead, haberdasher. (Mr. Cuppage, Jermyn street, St. James's.

Herve H. Cheapside, jeweller. (Messrs. Kebblewhite, Rowland, and Co. Gray's inn place.

Herbert W. jun. Llandiloes, Montgomery, draper. (Mr. Taylor, Exchange street, Manchester.

Hewitt G. South Moulton street, Hanover square, taylor. (Mr. Newcomb, Vine street, Piccadilly.

Hewson R. Higgin, and Her, Isleworth, callico printers. (Messrs. Holmes and Co. Clement's inn.

Hinde J. C. P. Wyatt, and T. Keyse, Horsleydown, lead maker. (Mr. Mind, Throgmorton street.

Hills O. Shoreditch, cheesemonger. (Mr. Adams, Great Russel street.

Hobbes Thos. Ralph, Mary-le-bone park, music master. (Mr. Tatham, Crown street, Strand.

Heaver T. St. James's market, poulterer. (Mr. Kayll, Cross street, Newington Butts.

Houlden T. Spilsby, Lincoln, maltster. (Mr. Walker, Spilsby; or Mr. Amici, Sion college garden, Aldermanbury.

Howell P. London road, haberdasher. (Messrs. Willis, Fairthorne, and Co. Throgmorton street.

Hole Wm. Islington, apothecary. (Mr. Edwards, Symond's inn, Chancery lane.

Hudson John, Bannister, late of Hackney grove, merchant. (Mr. Kearsey, 110, Bishopsgate within.

Jackson W. West Clayton, Yorkshire, money scrivener. (Messrs. Sykes and Knowles, New inn; and Mr. Schofield, Horbury.

Ibbotson Geo. sen. and jun. Huddersfield, Seedsmen. (Mr. Wadsworth, Leeds; and Willis, Fairthorne, and Co. Throgmorton street.

Jackson J. Hardy, late of Selby, York, mariner, dealer, and Chapman. (Messrs. Prickett, Hull; and Mr. Watkins, Stone's buildings.

Johnson Thos. of Maulesfield, victualler. (Mr. Cheetham, Stockport; and Messrs. Cooper and Lowe, Southampton buildings.

Jones J. C. New Tothill street, Westminster, victualler. (Messrs. Phillipson and Braves, Staples inn.

Keyse T. and Co. P. Wyatt, Langburn, Ward Chambers, merchants. (Mr. Hodgson, Surry street, Strand.

Lamb John, Shepton Mallet, Somerset, dyer and dealer. (Mr. Miller, Shepton Mallet; and Mr. Blandford, Mitre court, Temple.

Leeds S. Great Massingham, Norfolk, miller. (Mr. Trenchard, Swaffham.

Lifford W. Shadwell High street, rope maker. (Mr. Nind, Throgmorton street.

Lindsay A. and J. Irvine, Manchester, cotton dealers. (Mr. Clough, Manchester; and Mr. Edge, King's Bench walk, Temple.

Lye G. and E. L. Bath carriers. (Mr. Salmon Devizes; and Messrs. Blake and White, Essex street, Strand.

Lynas W. Skerton, Lancaster, merchant. (Messrs. Hewitt and Kirk, Manchester; and Mr. Ellis, Chancery lane.

Mackenzie W. Covent garden, merchant. (Messrs. Forbes and Pocock, Ely place.

Marshall C. Little Hermitage street, sail maker. (Mr. Wilde, Castle street, Falcon square.

Maxted J. Little Earl street, victualler. (Mr. Whitton, Great James street, Bedford row.

Marshall C. Vinegar yard, Bermondsey street, worsted manufacturer. (Mr. Morton, Gray's inn square.

Mountford J. St. Nicholas, Worcester, woollen draper. Mr. Godson, Tonbury, Gloucester; and Mr. Baddeley, Serle street.

Nockold J. Colchester, hat manufacturer. (Mr. Deacon, Norwich; and Messrs. Windus, Son, and Co. Chancery lane.

Payne J. Burnham, Essex, cloaths salesman. (Mr. Coote, Austin friars.

Pagett W. Aldenham farm, Herts, cider merchant. (Mr. Long, Elm court, Temple.

Parker H. Hallifax, York, merchant, (Messrs. Palmer, Tomlinson, and Co. Copthall court, Throgmorton street.

Pajot Chas. Birmingham, pork butcher. (Barker and Unett, Birmingham; and Messrs. Devon and Tooke, Gray's inn.

Phillips J. Stonehouse, Devon, stone mason. (Mr. Boutflower, Devonshire street.

Phillips W. Brighton, carpenter. (Messrs. Brooker and Colbatch, Brighton; and Mr. Barber, Chancery lane.

Plimpton J. and J. Wood street, Cheapside, and South Bridge, Edinburgh, warehousemen. (Mr. Paiton, Walbrook.

Pocock W. North Petherton, Somerset, horse dealer. (Mr. Boys Bridgewater; and Messrs. Blake, Cook's court, Carey street.

Powles Thos. of Hoarwithy, Hereford, flax dresser. (Mr. Thos. Okey, Gloucester; and Mr. G. Chilton, Exchequer Office, Lincoln's inn.

Price R. and W. Cross, Bristol, merchants. (Mr. Oakley, Martin's lane, Cannon street.

Prina Phillip of Brewer street, Golden square, jeweller. (Messrs. Clarke and Richards, Chancery lane.

Ramsay S. and P. Aldrick, Bishops Stortford, upholsterers. (Mr. Adams, Old Jewry.

Reed J. Bath, confectioner. (Mr. Cruttwell, Bath; and Mr. Tarrant, Chancery lane.

Richardson J. and J. Sanderson, Tunbridge, farmers. (Mr. Stone, Tunbridge Wells; and Tourle and Palmer, Doughty street.

Rigby R. Manchester, victualler. (Messrs. Johnson and Bailey, Manchester; and Mr. Ellis, Chancery lane.

Roberts John, Tottenham court road, baker. (Mr. Swannell, Rickmansworth; and Mr. Aubrey, Took's court.

Saunders R. Croydon, cow-keeper. (Mr. Guy, Croydon.

Seabrooke S. Bowling alley, Red Cross street, Cripplegate, mill wright. (Mr. Paxton, Walbrook.

Senger G. West Bromwich, Stafford, timber dealer. (Mr. Jackson, Birmingham; and Mr. W. Johnson, Hall staircase, Temple.

Shaw W. Long Acre, cheesemonger. (Mr. Patten, Cross street, Hatton garden.

Shill S. Bristol, watchmaker. (Mr. Weeker, Bristol; and Vizard and Hutchinson, Lincoln's inn.

Sheppard, Treadway, and John Black, of Basing lane, merchants. (Mr. Scott, Mildred's court, Poultry.

Simmonds D. High street, Southwark, builder. (Mr. Clutton, St. Thomas street, Southwark.

Sweet G. jun. Wolverhampton, cordwainer. (Mr. Biddle, Wolverhampton; and Mr. Williams, Staple's inn.

Tatham W. Ormskirk, Lancaster, innkeeper. Mr. F. Atkinson, Lancaster; and Blakelock and Makinson, Elm court.

Tetsal James, of Chaddesley Corbet, Worcester, taylor. (Mr. W. Parker, Worcester.

Tetley J. Horton, York, callico manufacturer. (Mr. Higson, Red Cross street, Manchester; and Mr. Ellis, Chancery lane.

Thornley Edw. Hinckley, Leicester, money scrivener. (Mr. Greenway, Attleborough hall, Warwick; and Mr. Barber, Brick court, Temple.

Trier R. Geo. of Parson's green, Fulham, baker. (Mr. R. Nelson, King's road, Chelsea.

Tucker Mary, Tiverton, Devon, milliner, dealer and chapwoman. (Mr. Rendell, Tiverton; and Mr. Lys, Took's court, Chancery lane.

Turner J. Manchester, victualler. (Mr.

Cardwell, Manchester; and Mr. Hurd, Temple.

Waldson J. Cheshunt, Herts, taylor. (Mr. Railton, Clifford's inn.

Walker R. of Hull, grocer. (Messrs. Cod and Garland, Hull; and Exley and Stocker, Furnival's inn.

Walsh R. King's road, Chelsea, India rubber manufacturer. (Mr. Jupp, Carpenter's hall, London wall.

Wardle Geo. Newcastle-on-Tyne, grocer and dealer. (Messrs. Mitton and Pownall, Knight Rider street, Doctor's Commons.

Welchman J. Crewkerne, Somerset, linen draper. (Mr. Cooke, Bristol; and Mr. James, Gray's inn square.

Whitehead J. and C. Hanley, Stafford, earthenware manufacturer. (Messrs. Birch, Foster, and Co. Hanley; and Willis, Fairthorne, and Co. Warnford court.

Wilson W. King street, Richmond, bricklayer. (Mr. Edwards, Castle street, Holborn.

Winniett B. Margaret street, Cavendish square, stock broker. (Mr. Jacobs, Holborn court, Gray's inn.

Wood Henry, Green Dragon yard, Holborn, coach smith, dealer and chapman. (Mr. Shearman, Hart street, Bloomsbury.

Young Rich. Willis, Avon street, Somerset, slopseller. (Mr. Shepphard, Bath, and Shepphard and Adlington, Bedford row.

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.

J. Duckworth, Ashford, Kent, wine and brandy merchant.

J. Brace, Butt lane, Kent, dealer.

J. Pattison, Prince's street, Cavendish square, coach maker.

W. Phillips, Brighton, Sussex, carpenter.

DIVIDENDS.

Agar Moses, City Chambers, ship owner, 1 June.

Abell E. Oldford, Middlesex, dealer, 10 April.

Altham Wm. Token-house yard, broker, 8 May.

Ball R. of East Brent, Somerset, mercer, 10 April.

Baster John, late of the Strand, taylor. 21 April.

Bloxham Sir M. Wilkinson, and Bloxham, bankers, 17 March.

Bleekley G. Reading, Berks, ironmonger, 7 April.

Bowles A. T. and T. Williams, Kent street, grocers, 12 May.

Boulton G. Prickler's hill, E. Barnet, Herts, farmer, 15 May.

Bowes W. Newport, Isle of Wight, ironmonger, 23 March.

Brook R. V. Harcot, Worcester, paper-manufacturer, 22, March.

Carter T. and E. Gwillim, Brown's buildings, St. Mary-axe, merchants, 5 April.

Chadwick C. R. Grosvenor Mews, Bond street, 3 April.

Chapman John, Yarmouth, linen draper, 10 April.

Charlton C. East Farleigh, Kent, dealer, 3 April.

Chivers Wm. Stepney Causeway, mariner, 31 March.

Clarke J. Bachus walk, Hoxton, lint manufacturer, 9 May.

Clay M. South Shields, linen draper, 14 March.

Conder J. Pavement, Moorfields, paperhanger, 21 April.

Cooper R. Paradise street, Mary-le bone, plasterer, 7 April.

Croft Wm. and James, Manks, Leeds, merchant, 31 March.

Cross Wm. Lombard street, banker, 13 March.

Custins S. T. Bishopsgate street, glover, 10 March.

Denny J. Barbican, stationer, 10 April.

Dingle W. Exeter, flour merchant, 28 March.

Donathan Thos. Liverpool, Block maker, 13 April.

Dumelow J. Hinckley, Leicester, grocer, 14 April.

Ellis J. Rathbone place, Oxford road, butcher, 1 June.

Elsom R. Church row, Newington, carpenter, 27 March.

Fisher W. Cambridge, woollen draper, 27 March.

Fogg R. and T. Cotterall, Manchester, cotton manufacturer, 9 April.

Gardner Wm. Newent, Gloucester, baker, 2 April.

Gibson J. Newcastle, woollen draper, 5 April.

Gledstanes G. Salisbury street, Strand, wine merchant, 24 March.

Hall Henry, Gutter lane, warehouseman, 26 May.

Harris J. E. Lowe, and T. Gaskill, Cannon street, felt makers, 3 May.

Harker M. Oakham, Rutland, mercer, 26 March.

Horn Nicholas, St. Martin's lane, merchant, 17 March.

Horton R. Newport, timber merchant, 6 April.

Hudson James, Watling street, merchant, 17 April.

Humphreys Thos. Cheltenham place, St. George's fields, horse dealer.

Humphrey J. Wardour street, boot maker, 14 March.

Hustler J. Weston Colville, Cambridge, farmer, 3 April.

Hutchison J. H. Poland street, victualler, 17 March.

James C. Cateaton street, ribbon manufacturer, 14 April.

Jardine J. Maryport, dealer, 17 March.

Joel Moses, High street, Shoreditch, glass dealer.

Jones Jane, of Dollydbreddian, Carnarvon, tanner, 7 April.

King J. King street, Covent garden, silk mercer, 27 March.

Knowles J. Gwyndu, Anglesea, innkeeper, 7 April.

Knight E. Horsleydown lane, lighterman, 21 April.

Lane J. F. Fraser, and T. Boylstone, London, merchants, 31 March.

Landbeck G. W. Old Bethlem, broker, 27 March.

Lane J. T. Frazer, and T. Boylstone, Nicholas lane, merchants, 10 March.

Lloyd T. H. Poultry, slate merchant, 3 March.

Ludlam J. Stoke, Bruern, Northampton, victualler, 31 March.

Maclellan J. L. Plymouth, paper maker, 2 April.

Mackenzie R. King's Arms yard, merchant, 10 March.

Macarthey G. P. and R. W. Vaughan, Bristol, taylors, 22 March.

Mathews T. Brydges street, linen draper, 14 March.

Munley W. Chesterfield, Derby, money scrivener, 26 March.

Macdonald C. W. York street, Covent garden, boot and shoe maker, 3 April.
Mark W. Plymouth dock, linen draper.
Martin Wm. of Homerton, broker, 21 April.
Milward C. S. Bromley, miller, 10 April.
Miller J. Brighton, Sussex, bricklayer, 23 March.
Mills James and John, Saddleworth, York, merchants, 6 April.
Mortimer W. Wivenhoe, Essex, maltster, 3 April.
Munt J. Leadenhall street, hatter, 31 March.
Newby J. Aldgate, draper, 22 May.
Newill John, and Sampson, Stoke, Stafford, carriers.
Fain J. Peckham, bricklayer, 27 March.
Perry J. Angel court, Throgmorton street, broker, 3 April.
Phillips W. Wragby, Lincoln, shopkeeper, 3 April.
Powley Wm. Penrith, Cumberland, ironmonger, 4 April.
Pope W. Westbury, or Severn, dealer in pigs, 21 April.
Purnell Cyrus, Lympeham, Somerset, coal merchant, 11 April.
Raymond J. Fowey, sail maker, 15, March.
Robinson R. Manchester, cotton twist dealer, 27 March.
Robertson D. Finsbury square, wine merchant, 12 May.
Rose W. Earl's court, Kensington, brewer, 3 March.
Roscoe John, of Liverpool, grocer, 11 April.
Rutter R. Blackburn, Lancaster, currier, 21 March.
Satterthwait T. Kendal, tanner, 14 March.
Schneider J. H. Bow lane, merchant, 12 May.
Sargeant E. jun. Minories, slop seller, 27 March.
Sinton J. Newcastle-on-Tyne, miller, 14 March.
Smith John, Liverpool merchant, 21 April.
Smith J. North Warnborough, Hants, sack maker, 27 March.
Sibbald A. Wapping, Slop seller, 3 April.
Southcombe G. Bristol, cheesemonger, 23 March.
Stephens J. Yeovil, Somerset, gardener, 9 April.
Stuart C. Paradise street, Rotherhithe, apothecary, 12 May.
Stuart C. Berwick street, 3 April.
Tabraham L. Back lane, Middlesex, wheelwright, 24 March.
Teague J. Coal pit banks, Salop, huckster, 6 April.
Thomas G. Pembroke, shopkeeper, 14 April.
Towne J. Oxford market, carcass butcher, 27 March.
Towell G. Totney, Lincoln, victualler, 30 March.
Tucker W. jun. serge manufacturer, 15 May.
Turner J. Blackheath, bricklayer, 27 March.
Walker D. Holborn, Bookseller, 10 April.
Wade S. Ipswich, Suffolk, brewer, 8 May.
Wakeling E. Clare, Suffolk, brewer, 27 March.
Westmacott R. sen. Mount street, sculptor, 17 March.
Wells W. Boston, Lincoln, grocer, 3 April.
Wicken J. Sandhurst, Kent, grocer, 4 April.
White T. Southwark, haberdasher, 8 May.
Wilson Wm. Shakespeare walk, merchant, 10 April.
Williams H. Chepstow, merchant, 10 April.
Woodman C. Chesham, Bucks, wine merchant, 24 March.
Woodroff E. Woollaston, Gloucester, iron manufacturer, 10 April.
Woodward P. King street, Cheapside, warehouseman, 3 April.
Wright Benj, Birmingham, factor, 13 April.
Young James, of Queen street, merchant, 12 May.
Young W. Ardwick, Manchester, dealer, 9 April.

CERTIFICATES.

Adams A. Chester place, Lambeth timber merchant.
Argent W. Hare street, Romford, victualler.
Ashe J. R. Walton, Lancaster, draper.
Blyth W. Sheffield, York, mercer.
Bowser W. Chatham, Kent, iron manufacturer.
Brook R. V. Harcott, Worcester, paper manufacturer.
Collier Rob. Bond court, Walbrook, wine merchant.
Cheetham James, Failsworth, Lancaster, manufacturer.
Chapman J. Great Turnstile, Holborn, flour factor.
Coren P. Quality court, Chancery lane, money scrivener.
Cox J. Pendlewood, Somerset, miller.
Cuisset J. East street, Red Lion square, upholder.
Davis Godfrey, Broad street, Bloomsbury, dealer.
Davis H. Walworth, Surry, cap maker.
Davis J. Holborn, trunk maker.
Devenish A. and H. Newport, Villiers street, upholsterers.
Dawsen Thos. Proctor, of Brydges street, Strand, stationer.
Falconer J. Bernard street, Russell square, dealer.
Frodsham J. Kingsgate street, Holborn, watchmaker.
Gardner W. Luton, Bedford, sack manufacturer.
Gibson R. of Selby, York, cooper.
Glover W. and J. Poultry, haberdashers.
Gurney J. Brixton causeway, carpenter.
Hand J. Wormwood street, warehouseman.
Hawkins R. Bridgewater, Somerset, innkeeper.
Hawkes G. Longfleet, Camford, Dorset, tanner.
Hemming J. Walsall, Stafford, druggist.
Heywood Rich. Shaw, Manchester, linen merchant.
Hoole Stephen, Tottenham court road, hardwareman.
Jacobs John, Booken gardens, Leadenhall street, watchmaker.
Johnson Joseph, Liverpool, tallow chandler.
Kirkpatrick Thos. Oxford street, silk mercer.
Lottey Wm. Martin, Liverpool, rectifier.
Ludlam J. Wood street, Cheapside, hosier.
Macloud J. of Greensend, Woolwich, wheelwright.
Mallington G. and J. Sheard, Huddersfield, York, dyers.
Mason J. Bradford, linen draper.
Mucklow J. Whitecross street, St. Luke's, butcher.

Newby John, of Aldgate, woollen draper.
Orme W. Middlesex Hospital, bookseller.
Parker W. Bucknall iron works, Stafford, iron founder.
Patterson G. Hertford, merchant.
Piper J. Birmingham, inn keeper.
Pratt Thos. Wood street, Cheapside, hosier.
Poussett R. B. Bermondsey, coal merchant.
Perkins John, of Hertford, carpenter.
Rock J. Westmorcland buildings, Aldersgate street, taylor.
Shaw D. Barnsley, York, mercer.
Sherwood John Wm Newgate street, cheesemonger.
Shepphard A. Leeds, milliner.
Stevenson James, Oxford street, dealer.
Stanford E. Leicester fields, livery stable keeper.
Swindall J. Pendleton, Lancaster, shopkeeper.
Singer Sam. Westbury, Wilts, clothier.
Taylor T. Edgware road, Paddington, carpenter.
Thornton Wm. and John, of New Malton, York, coal merchants.
Tigwall J. Gosport, linen draper.
Trickey, B. Plympton Earl, Devon, butcher.
Tulford R. W. and B. Hanbury, Great Russell street, Bloomsbury, shoemakers.
Upsdell P. Castle street, St. Martin's fields, builder.
Ware Rob. and P. Francis, of Lawrence lane, Cheapside, wholesale glovers.
Wallis J. Fleet street, Engraver.
Weaver T. Cheltenham, Gloucester, innkeeper.
Wilkinson T. and J. Wighton, Cateaton street, woollen drapers.
Wilks W. of Birmingham, factor.
Willis J. Pudding lane, merchant.
Williams W. Wapping, soap boiler.
Wootton G. North Cnurh, Hertford, straw hat maker.
Wright S. sen. Grange road, Bermondsey, bricklayer.
Young J. Cheltenham, dealer.

PARTNERSHIPS DISSOLVED.

Thomas Bridge and John Parsons, of Southwark, seedsmen.
Edward Roberts, and Samuel Churchouse, of Hammersmith, bricklayers.
Charles Clark and Joseph Clark, of Ranelagh street, Pimlico, butchers.
William Webster and Richard Ashmore, of Holmgate, Derby, linen manufacturers.
John Musson and John Graham, of Bird street, Grosvenor square, chair makers.
Hattill, Arnald, and Thomas Eagles Bartlett, of Banbury, Oxford, mercers.
James Austed and William Prickett, of Old South Sea house, merchants.
Michael Bowman and George Jordan, of London.
George Knowles and Daniel Knowles, of York, woollen drapers.
John Wainwright and Thomas Hodgkinson, of Sheffield, builders.
Sampson, Wright, and Joseph Ridgway, of Hanley, Stafford, mercers.
Thos. Woodhouse, of Bristol, and Wm. Taylor, of Plymouth, tobacconists.
James Atkin and Alex. Green, of Nottingham, drapers.
James Kenworthy, John Back, and Edw. Thompson, of Stockport, Chester, brewers.
William Follows, Thos. Oldershaw, and Simon Orgill, of Castle Donington, Leicester, lace manufacturers.
Rob. Coleman and Thos. Coleman, of Leicester.
Peter Bateman, Ann Bateman, and Wm. Bateman, of Bunhill row, working goldsmiths.
Thos. Rock, Wm. Walker, Alex. Walker, and Joseph Rock, of Birmingham, coal-dealers.
John Still, Wm. Burges, and James Burleigh, of Bristol, brassers.
William Sherlock, William Pownall, and Chas. Wild, of Liverpool, tobacco manufacturers.
Samuel Rowlandson, Edward Isaac, and William Brien, of Cheapside, warehousemen.
Wm. Everhard, Baron Von Doornik, Edmund Griffith, and Jeremiah Donovan, of Well street, Wellclose square, patent soap makers.
Ann Perry, Mary Perry, Harriot Perry, Charlotte Eliza Perry, and Fanny Hartshorn, of Bilston, Stafford, millmers.
George Booth and Wm. Howson, of Sheffield, common carriers.
John Duxbury and Edw. Peall, of Bread street.
John Medd and Thomas Beaumont, of Kingston-upon-Hull, leather cutters.
Charles Ross and Henry Collier, of Great Barr, Stafford, brush makers.
J. W. Hardy and John Topham, of Islington, coal merchants.
Thomas Bradshaw and Benjamin Neve, of Aldgate.
Wm. Mouls and Wm. Finaughty, of Goswell street, carmen.
Henry Carr and John Dolley, of Princes street Barbican, carpenters.
Thos. Burns and Wm. Powell, of Gold street, St. George's East, coopers.
John Hayton, Joseph Langcake, and Wm. Atkinson, of Fish street hill, hat manufacturers.
John Renshaw and Edw. Renshaw, of Liverpool, merchants.
Wm. Marston and Stephen Truste, of Hollywell street, Strand, stay makers.
Thomas Gardner and David Thompson, of Liverpool.
Wm. Byfield and Wm. Cloughton, of Manchester, attornies.
Valentine Close, of Hanley, Stafford, and Valentine Mantz Close, of Boston, Lincoln, glass dealers.
T. Billinge, jun. and Geo. Blundell, of Liverpool, paper dealers.
Wm. Morris and Rich. Toleman, of Bristol, patten makers.
Rich. Bowling and Thos. Wilks, of Bramham, York, pinmbers.
Rich. Finch and John Hodder, of Millbank, coal merchants.
George Birkinshaw, John Bentley, and Isaac Parshouse, of Sheffield, manufacturers of edge tools.
Jos. Howard, James Booth, John Oldershaw, and Thos. Howard, of Denton, Lancaster, hat manufacturers.
Thomas Watson, Thomas Martineau, and James Watson, of Norwich, manufacturers.
Daniel Pegg and Abraham Mayhew, of Coppice row, Clerkenwell, petrefacturers.
Elizabeth Lingford and Thos. Lingford, of Nottingham, jewellers.
James Watford and Edw. Roser, of West square, St. George's fields, carpenters.
Thos. Tomlinson, Rob. Holgate, and Edw. Chimley, of Winterton, Lincoln, millers.
Christopher Gregory and Griffith Hayes, of Brigg, Lincoln, dealers in hats.
John Smith, of Liverpool, corn merchant, and Thomas Owen, of Northen, Chester, miller.

John Smith and James Newton Robinson, of Portsmouth, ship chandlers.

William Sharp and Brothers, of Bradford, York.

Matthew Francis Hommey and John Bonnycastle, of Charlton, Kent, schoolmasters.

Samuel Ratterby, Burgoyne, and Rich. Metcalfe, of High hill ferry, Clapton, dyers.

John Roberts, James Ansted, and Wm. Prickett, of Old South Sea house, merchants.

Samuel Wing, and Joseph Unwin, of Sheffield, file manufacturers.

Richard Evans and Wm. Finch, of Warrington, Lancaster, iron founders.

John Humphreys, James Thomas, Thomas Colley, and Thos. Sturkey, of Pool, Montgomery, Welch flannel manufacturers.

Joseph Eller, and Wm. Norsor, of Great Yarmouth, house carpenters.

John Chippindale and Wm. Poynter, of Ripon, York, machine makers.

John Livie and Solomon Jones, of Bury court, St. Mary-axe.

Joseph Stuart and Wm. Barnett Stuart, of Cambridge, breeches makers.

John Ball Mason and John Brough, of Nottingham, hosiers.

Joseph Lawrence and George Lawrence, of Wilmot street, Russell square, butchers.

John Lizars and James Lizars, late of Great Warner street, Clerkenwell, tin plate workers.

Philip Thomas Isaacson and Benjamin Lewis, of Threadneedle street, auctioneers.

Elizabeth Steward, and Bob. Guy Govey, of Blackwall, coopers.

John Watts, Thos. Foster, and Wm. Agnew, of St. Helen's place, tea dealers.

R. Worsley and Thos. Worsley, of Camlachie, North Britain, dyers.

Humphy Jones and Hugh Jones, of Gracechurch street, linen drapers.

Joseph Leese, of Burton-upon-Trent, Stafford, and Charles Lee, of Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Leicester, mercers.

John Freeman and James Freeman, of Portsmouth, stone masons.

Robert Ring and Thos. Ring, of Bristol, coopers.

Samuel Deverill, Hooton Deverill, and Thos. Crowther, of Nottingham, hosiers.

Henry and Asa Andrews, of Aldersgate street, paper hangers.

Joseph Hibbert, sen. and Joseph Hibbert, jun. Charles Hibbert, and John Hibbert, of Hylord's court, Crutched-friars, wine merchants.

Thomasin Gooden, widow and John Thorne, butchers, of Rotherhithe wall, Surry.

John Nightingale, James Pendlebury, and Wm. Southworth, of Sharples, Lancaster, bleachers.

David Peacock and Robert Peacock, of Preston, Lancaster, linen drapers.

James Polding and Robert Rawlinson, of Liverpool, timber merchants.

Thomas Minton and Joseph Poulson, of Stoke-upon-Trent, Stafford, porcelain manufacturers.

John Thomas, William Rollet, and John Williamson, of Gainsburgh, Lincoln, builders.

Joseph Bell and Wm. Henry Hobbs, of Bishopsgate street Within, insurance brokers.

THE publishers of the Tradesman are desirous of expressing their sincere regret at the insertion of an article in their number for October last, reflecting on the King's College of Aberdeen, in regard to the management of their bursaries, of the contents of which they were totally ignorant, and inserted under the management of their late editor. That there is not the smallest foundation in truth for the charges against that learned body, may be seen by referring to the Statistical Account of King's College; that there cannot be a more wilful perversion of words than what the article in question contains. That account states expressly that "the bursaries in the gift of the college amount to fifty;" and there was plainly no occasion for inserting the number of the other bursaries; because, as appears from the same account, they belong not to the college, but to private patrons. The whole number of bursaries, at present, we understand to be eighty-two; and, from authentic information, we are warranted to assert, that the produce of these funds, whether arising from rents of lands or interests of money, is applied solely and exclusively to the support of the respective bursars, except the usual honorarium or fee to the professor in whose class the bursar is. We are happy, therefore, to have it in our power to give the most satisfactory confutation to the aspersions cast on that respectable body in the article alluded to, which unluckily found a place in our Magazine; and we hope the university and King's College of Aberdeen will accept of this apology as the only means left us of doing justice to their character. Neither does it enter into the plan of our present work to interfere with subjects entirely foreign to the views of The Tradesman, or Commercial Magazine.

Importations at Liverpool, from 20th Feb. to 20th March.

West-Indies.—66 casks 5 bags coffee, 237 hogsheads sugar, 81 bales cotton, 18 casks molasses, 77 ditto annatto, J. Ridley; 177 hogsheads sugar, 10 bags coffee, Smith and Co.; 25 hogsheads sugar, J. Bolton and Co.; 64 barrels ditto, J. and R. Gladstone, 50 hogsheads ditto, J. Kirkpatrick, 25 bales cotton, Mann, Barnard, and

Co.; 110 bales cotton, 50 hogsheads sugar, order. 10 hogsheads, 161 tierces, 73 barrels sugar, 29 puncheons rum, 121 tierces, 106 barrels coffee, 84 tierces annatto, 150 mahogany boards, 26 hides, 17 bales and pockets cotton, Buchanan and Beun; 10 puncheons rum, S. S. and C. Turner; 28 tierces, 50 barrels coffee, J. Cooper and nephew; 16 puncheons rum, 2 tierces sugar, T. Bridge; 247 casks coffee, 1 pipe wine, for T. Hind and Co.; 40 hogsheads sugar, France, Fletcher, and Co.; 14 casks 4 barrels coffee, 394 bales, 6 serons cotton, 38 barrels ginger, Ewart, Rutson, and Co.; 1 cask, 2 barrels coffee, 2 hogsheads rum, 1 ditto wine, J. Fox; 12 hogsheads, 3 barrels, J. Sutherland; 26 hogsheads, 10 tierces, 4 barrels sugar, Whitehouse and Galan; 20 barrels ditto, Needham and Co.; 1 hogshead rum, D. Hawthornthwaite; 1 pipe wine, S. Hinde, 380 bales cotton, Taylor, Hugan and Co.; 9 casks, 1 barrel coffee, order; 76 hogsheads, 19 tierces, 1 barrel sugar, 85 bags pimento, 15 tons logwood, W. P. Litt and Co.; 166 bags pimento, Maxwell and Co.; 338 bags cotton, 48 tons fustic, J. Garnett; 19 hogsheads, 79 tierces sugar, France, Fletcher, and Co.; 451 hogsheads, 82 tierces, 75 barrels sugar, 178 puncheons rum, 2 pipes, 12 puncheons lime juice, 2 bales cotton, for Williams and Wilson; 263 hogsheads, 19 barrels sugar, 13 tierces coffee, 22 bales cotton, Weston, Milburne, and Co.; 54 hogsheads, 114 barrels sugar, W. Coupland, 67 hogsheads ditto, J. Robinson; 33 ditto, 3 barrels ditto, W. Worthy; 100 cases noyeau, F. Jordan and Co.; 6 kegs ginger, 2 casks tamarinds, T. Lee; 2 boxes noyeau, W. Jones and Co.; 17 casks cocoa, order; 50 hogsheads, 88 barrels sugar, 3 tons lignumvitæ, for Dickenson and Hodgson; 141 hogsheads, 41 barrels sugar, 2 bales cotton, order; 85 hogsheads, 132 tierces, 26 barrels sugar, 122 bales cotton, 20 barrels coffee, 60 bags cocoa, for Barton, Irlam, and Higginson; 100 bales, 1 bag cotton, J. G. Foderingham; 15 serons bark, T. H. Higginson.

Spain.—2 hogsheads wine, for C. Ward; 4 butts ditto, Nevett and Farrar; 10 ditto, Winter and Sons; 2500 corkwood, M. de Jonge and Co.; 1 hogshead wine, Webberley and Pepper; 1 ditto, Jackson and Co.; 10 butts, 2 hogsheads ditto, Alanson and Clifford; 10 butts ditto, Smith and Son; 10 ditto, R. Golightly; 50 boxes raisins, Robin and King; 2 barrels cochineal, J. Oates, 119 butts, 20 hogsheads wine, 40 boxes, 226 frails raisins, 130 ditto figs, order; 392 bales cotton, for Falkner, Lloyd, Hamer, and Co.; 18 ditto, C. Tayleur and Co.; 13 boxes raisins, Ellis and M'Neill; 800 bags shumac, 8 tons corkwood, 6 jars olives, 80 lbs. bottle corks, 42 barrels turpentine, for C. Tayleur and Co.; 100 butts wine, for J. Thompson; 1 ditto, J. Robinson and Son; 70 bales wool, F. Jordan and Co.; 94 bags wool, 32 hogsheads tobacco, for J. Moss; 50 pipes brandy, 2 hogsheads wine, 1400 bags hazle nuts, 50 ditto, almonds, 376 quintals Rosas corkwood, for J. Kirkpatrick; 181 bales wool, 5 bundles goat skins, for J. Robinson and Son; 1349 boxes lemons, 12 boxes Virginia sulphur, 5 boxes essence of lemon, 784 cwt. brimstone, S. Holland and Co.; 80 tons barilla, 24 tons Rosas corkwood, 10 pipes, 5 hogsheads Aloque wine, 20 baskets, 49 boxes almonds, for J. Kirkpatrick; 210 bales cotton, for W. Barber and Co.; 95 bales wool, Hughes and Duncan.

America.—132 logs pine timber, 1c. 1q. 11 deals, 102 oars, 95c. staves, 46 handspikes, 418 axe helves, 3 fathoms lathwood, 10 spars, 7 barrels tar, for W. B. Cripps and Co.; 300 pieces pine, maple, birch, beech, ash, and cedar, 80 pieces oak, 7 fathoms lathwood, 80c. staves 2c. deals, for Logan, Lenox, and Co.; 257 barrels tar, 201 ditto, turpentine, 210c. staves, 200 tierces flax seed, 35 hogsheads tobacco, 199 bales cotton, 17 tierces rice, J. Stewart; 50 barrels wheat flour, 579 ditto pot and pearl ashes, 215 ditto turpentine, 8 ditto tar, 223 bales cotton, 100 hogsheads tobacco, 150 tierces, 130 casks flax seed, 190c. staves, for R. F. Breed, 4 boxes oranges, Hughes and Duncan; 215 bales cotton, Carter and Storr; 322 bales cotton, for Slone and Co.; 180 tierces, 45 half ditto, rice, 8 barrels, 4 half ditto, flour, 4 barrels tar, for A. Mein and Co.; 490 bales cotton, for Sloane and Co.; 147 bales cotton, 15 barrels ashes, 190c. staves, 6 casks flax seed, 339 barrels ashes, J. Richardson; 70 bales cotton, for Clough, Wilkes, and Clough; 19 ditto, 60 barrels, pot ashes, Little, Wotherspoon, and Co.; 1982 barrels tar, 242 ditto turpentine, Mason, Hodgson, and Co.; 693 bales cotton, for F. Haywood; 680c. staves, 10m. shingles, of Cypress, 378 barrels flour, 16 hogsheads tobacco, 20 bales cotton, 1 barrel, 12 half ditto bread, for Hamilton and Co.; 293 tierces, 86 half ditto rice, 35 bales cotton, 90 barrels turpentine, 79 hogsheads tobacco, 297 bales cotton, 5800 spokes, for Patterson and Malonek; 73 tons, 11c. fustic, 269 bales cotton, for J. Eason, and Co.; 250 ditto, Podmore and Buchanan, 20 ditto, J. Richardson; 25 ditto, 2 barrels bees' wax W. Christie and Co.; 190 tierces, 19 half ditto rice, 319 bags cotton, for A. Mein and Co.; 90 tierces rice, B. and J. Gray and Co.; 300 ditto, Sloane and M'Millan, 555 bags cotton, W. Dixon and Co.; 98 ditto, A. G. Miller; 347 barrels

turpentine, 205 ditto pot ash, 212 bales cotton, 162 tierces, 25 half ditto rice, 170*l*c. staves, for J. Corbett and Co.; 300 bales cotton, 100 casks rice, 20 tons pig iron, order; 80 barrels flour, 3 hogsheads tobacco, 419 tierces, 7 half ditto rice, 315 bales cotton, order; 139 bales cotton, 172 tierces, 18 half ditto rice, 200 barrels, 50 half ditto flour, Clough, Wilkes, and Clough; 10 bags cotton, for W. Dixon and Co.; 100 ditto, R. Wilson; 13 ditto, D. Carruthers; 100 ditto, J. Chapman; 180 ditto, W. Forde and Co.; 274 ditto, Robinson and Lawrence; 10 ditto, 2 pockets ditto, W. Christie; 184 bags cotton, order; 445 bales, 55 bags cotton, 205 barrels, 20 half ditto rice, 103 barrels turpentine 33c. 10 staves, for B. and J. Gray and Co.; 205 bags cotton, 59 barrels, 83 half ditto rice, J. Watson; 54 bales cotton, G. Mackey and Co.; 3 hogsheads tobacco, 80 barrels flour, 419 tierces, 7 half ditto rice, 316 bales cotton, order; 300 bales cotton, 100 casks rice, 20 tons pig iron, 2 barrels oysters, order; 36 bales cotton, order.

Portugal.—16 pipes wine, for W. C. Lake and Son, 10 ditto R. Golightly; 600c. corkwood, Knowsley and Co.; 24 pipes wine, order; 24 hogsheads tobacco, Taylor and Smedley, 19 ditto, J. Heathcote and Co.; 13 bags cotton, C. and C. Bedford, 71 ditto, T. Hardwick; 273 ditto, Lyne, Hathorne, and Co.; 20 ditto, J. Bowden, 5 bales wool, S. Holland and Co.; 20 pipes wine, J. Thompson; 14 ditto, J. Ormerod, 4 ditto, J. and J. Boyd; 4 ditto, Lowndes and Bateson; 2 ditto, J. T. Koster; 1 ditto A. Dugdall, 1 hogshead ditto, P. Dawson, 4 tons corkwood, Crane and Co.; 233 bags cotton, — Hebblethwaite, 40 ditto Haywood and Co.; 75 ditto, Buthons and Koster; 130 ditto, Heather and Lucas; 10 boxes lemons and oranges, Crane and Co.; 50 pipes, 4 hogsheads wine, order; 10 bags cotton, for Ware and Co.; 171 ditto, 538 chests, 55 half ditto, 63 baskets oranges and lemons, 2000 cane reeds, 10 barrels figs, J. H. Sores, 26 bags cotton, J. J. and G. Clement, 91 ditto, Milnes and Co.; 95 ditto T. J. R. Costa and Co.; 34 ditto, G. Goring and Son; 4 ditto, M. R. Soares; 3 cwt. corkwood, J. Hudson; 20 chests lemons and oranges, Lyne, Brothers, and Co.; 20 ditto, J. J. Monteira; 59 ditto, Lodges and Tooth; 10 pipes wine, for E. Chippendale; 12 ditto, J. Kipper; 6 ditto, J. Cuthbert; 5 ditto, J. and J. Buchanan; 5 ditto W. Gibson and Co.; 1 ditto G. Browne; 5 ditto, T. Bond; 11 ditto, Gilp and Co.; 2 ditto, 2 hogsheads ditto, B. Bird; 6 pipes ditto, Dixon and Stewart; 5 ditto, A. Stewart; 9 half chests lemons and oranges, C. Williams, 182 pipes, 18 hogsheads ditto, order; 30 hogsheads tobacco, for J. Brown and Co.; 228 bags cotton, T. and W. Earle and Co.; 32 chests, 20 half ditto oranges, Farquhar and Co.; 55 bags cotton, for Butter, Brothers, 166 ditto, G. Goring and Son; 65 ditto Corto and Inman, 66 ditto, J. and J. Boyd and Sons; 56 ditto, Carvalho and Co.; 30 ditto, Farquhar and Co.; 26 ditto, Warre, Brothers, 206 ditto, order; 158 hogsheads flax seed, 219 tierces, 34 half ditto rice, 35 barrels turpentine, for Martin, Hope, and Thornely; 38 boxes lemons and oranges, 9 boxes raisins; 780 cane reeds, M'Iver and Co.; 221 barrels ashes, 30 hogsheads tobacco, 100 barrels turpentine, 127 bales cotton, for Hughes and Duncan; 10 boxes lemons and oranges, 1 ditto figs, for A. P. Fortunato; 480 bags wool, 24 boxes succades, order.

Mediterranean.—150 tons brimstone, 65 boxes lemons, 8 tons corkwood, 34 bags yellow berries, 6 casks figs, 12 drums raisins, for G. Gilchrist; 11 casks red argol, 5 ditto white ditto, 5 pipes wine, for R. Richardson and Co.; 24 boxes maccaroni, W. Currie; 22 casks cream tartar, 39 cases argol, 10 bales safflower, 8 casks galls, 198 chests oil, 388 sacks juniper berries, 5 tons fustic, 15 ditto emery stones, for M. de Jongh and Co.

Brazils.—200 bags rice, 765 serons tallow, 100 cow and ox hides, for Dickenson and Co.; 3 bales nutria skins, 415 cow and ox hides, J. J. W. J. M'Keand, 20 bags coffee, W. Forbes and Co.; 13 ditto, R. T. Woodward and Co.; 19 ditto, J. and E. Evans, 20 ditto T. Stavert; 14 ditto, 152 serons cotton, 3290 cow and ox hides; 44 serons tallow, Dyson, Brothers, and Co.; 95 ditto, J. Stewart; 10 bales hoste hides, H. Matthie, 6380 horns, W. Dixon and Co.; 633 serons tallow, order; 537 bags cotton, W. Robinson and Co.; 108 ditto, B. and J. Gray and Co.; 25 ditto, Merriett and Co.; 15 ditto, Lock and Co.; 15 ditto, Braddock and Co.; 10 ditto, Wilson and Co.; 10 ditto, M. Kraws; 10 ditto, Jackson and Co; 10 ditto, J. R. Sanders; 26 ditto, Ball and Co.; 50 ditto, T. Barber; 19 ditto, M. Barber; 20 ditto, S. and T. Knight; 21 ditto, Lyne and Co.; 10 ditto, Whittaker and Haworth; 15 ditto, Kearsley and Co.; 20 ditto, Peel, Yates and Co.; 737 ditto, 65 serons tallow, order.

Sweden.—247 fir balks, 612 deals 16½c. 12 deal ends, for Worrall and Williamson; 4 foreign sails, 1 foreign anchor, M. M. Owston; 120 fir balks, 6½c. 22 deals, for Horne and Stonehouse.

Importations at the Port of London, from 21st Feb. to 20th March 1810.

HEMP.	TONS.
C. Allrick	15
Fea and Co.	4
G. Peake	720
G. Todd	7
S. Rucker	45
	791

SPANISH WOOL.	CWTS.
Lyne and Co.	210
S Cock	90
J. Waring	380
Smith and Co.	735
F. Fisher	170
M'Donnell	720
J. C. Bernales	50
Salter and Co.	330
Railton and Co.	30
Gordon and Co.	80
Smith and Co.	200
Boddington and Co.	1000

SPANISH WOOL.	WTS.
Ruckers	60
Schmidsmager	100
J. Tunno	600
O'Reilly	30
J. Pearson	24
Berganche	50
Groffinule Brothers	30
Gordon and Co.	30
Bainbridge	50
R. and S. Young	180
Le Mesurier	150
Mellish and Co.	100
Salter and Co.	80
Dartlin and Co.	500
Buller and Co.	36
Barclay and Cr.	40
Reid and Co.	50
Marao and Co.	100
I. Tunno	40
	6261

MADDER.	CWTS.
Coles and Co.	70
Noble and Co.	50
Brown and Co.	300
J. Bolland	500
Portman and Co.	26
	946

RAGS.	TONS.
Twemlow	5
Smith and Co.	2
Scott	2
	9

FLAX.	TONS.
R. Smith	260
J. Ramsay	6
Ruckers and Co.	550
S. Drew and Co.	150
G. Todd	33

SILK.	Thrown. lbs.	Raw lbs.
Doxat and Co.	4610	8730
F. Minot	1220	100
Staniforth and Co.	——	3400
Penn and Co.	240	——
M'Donnell	——	2920
J. Elmslie	——	940
Railtoe and Co.	——	600
Jain and Co.	——	510
Banbury and Co.	——	1080
Tomlinson	——	500

SILK.	Thrown. lbs.	Raw. lbs.
Sapte and Co.	1200	400
Haldeman and Sons	2580	151
A. and A. Favenc	350	400
Gandolf and Co.	700	——
Cazenove and Co.	160	630
Woollam and Co.	——	440
E. Gwatkin	——	180
	11060	24320

Prices of Navigable Canal Shares, Dock Stock, Fire Office Shares, &c.

The Trent and Mersey or Grand Trunk Navigation, 1055l. 1050l. dividing 40l. nett per annum.—Staffordshire and Worcestershire, 715l. dividing 40l. nett per annum.—Monmouthshire, 3l. per share half yearly, 138l. to 136l.—Leeds and Liverpool, 188l.—Grand Junction, 246l.—Kennett and Avon, 48l.—Wilts and Berks, 52l. 10s. to 53l.—Huddersfield, 42l.—Dudley, 68l. 10.—49l.—Rochdale,—46l.—Ellesmere, 80l.—Lancaster, 24l. to 25l.—Grand Surrey, old shares, at 65l. with new ditto attached, at par.—West-India Dock Stock at 168l. per cent. ex Dividend of 5l. per cent. nett, half-yearly.—East-India ditto, 135l.—London Dock, 136l. to 136l. 10s. ex Dividend, 2l. 15s. nett half-yearly, 135l.—Commercial ditto, 90l. premium, ex dividend.—Globe Assurance, 129l. per share, ex Dividend, 3l. nett half-yearly.—Atlas, par.—East-London Water-Works, 227l. 228l.—Portsmouth and Farlington ditto, 44l. premium, with new subscription attached.—Thames and Medway, 42l. to 43l. premium.—Basingstoke, 35l. to 37l. 10s.—Ashby-de-la-Zouch, 22l. 10s.

Importations at the **PORT** *of* **LONDON**, *for the Month ending 20th March*, 1810.

Ashes, Pearl and Pot, cwts.	3,710	Rags, tons.	9
Barilla, tons.	800	Rape Seed, qrs.	970
Brandy, pieces	120	Raisins, Sun, cwts.	1,811
Brimstone, cwts,		Raisins, Smyrna, cwts.	940
Bristles, doz. lbs.	6,710	Rice,	1,278
Butter, tons	1806	Rum, galls.	31,000
Cochineal, lb.	760	Silk, Thrown, lbs.	10,060
Coffee, cwt.	14,000	—, Raw, lbs.	22,320
Cork, tons	118	Smalts, lbs.	1,500
Cotton, lbs.	127,000	Sugar, cwts.	127,108
Currants, cwts.	1,000	Tallow, tons	96
Flax,	1,600	Tar, bar.	
Hemp, tons	791	Tobacco, lbs.	576,100
Linseed, qrs.	1,035	Wheat, qrs.	97,000
Madder,	46	Wine, galls.	657,000
Oil, Olives, galls	248	Wool, cwts. Spanish	6 261
Oil, Turpentine, lbs.	1,921	Wool, Sheep's, cwts.	2,418

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	Tuesday, 26 Feb.	*Tuesday*, 6 Mar.	*Tuesday*, 13 Mar.	*Tuesday*, 20 Mar.
AMSTERDAM, 2 *Us.*	31 5	31 5	31½ 5	31 5
Ditto at sight	31 0	30 0	31 5	30 7
Rotterdam, 2 *Us.*	9 11	9 14	9 13	9 13
Hamburgh, 2½ *Us.*	28 10	28 10	28 10	28 10
Altona, 2 *Us.*	28 11	28 11	28 11	28 11
Paris, 1 day's date	19 16	19 16	19 18	20 6
Ditto, at sight	20 0	20 0	20 0	20 10
Bourdeaux	20 0	20 0	20 0	20 10
Madrid ..... *Effective*	44	44	44	44
Cadiz	39½	39½	39½	39½
Bilboa	41	41	41	41
Leghorn	60	60	61	61
Genoa	56	56½	56½	56½
Venice	52	52	52	52
Naples	42	42	42½	42
Lisbon	65	65	65½	65½
Oporto	65	65	65	65½
Rio Janeiro	71	71	71	71
Malta	56	56	55	56
Gibraltar	36½	36½	36½	36½
Dublin	9	9	9½	9½
Cork	10	10	10	10

New Dollars 5*s.* 6*d.* per oz.

Agio of the Bank on Holland, 4 per Cent.

Average Price of Corn throughout England and Wales, taken from the London Gazette, for the Week ending 17th March, 1810.

	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*
Wheat	102	3	Pease	56	9
Rye	59	3	Beans	50	9
Barley	46	4	Oats	27	11
Oatmeal	52	6	Beer or Big	37	0

CORN EXCHANGE.—Price of Grain, 26th March, 1810.

Wheat	78	to	95	Boilers	62	to	68
——, fine,	101	—	108	Gray	46	—	58
——, superfine,	110	—	112	Beans, new,	55	—	62
Rye	48	—	52	Ticks	44	—	54
Barley	38	—	50	Oats	22	—	30
——, fine,	50	—	58	Polands	38	—	
Malt	71	—	79	Fine Flour	85	—	90
White Pease	54	—	60	Seconds	80	—	85
Per sack of 5 bushels, or 280 lb.				Rapeseed	46	—	51

PRICE OF CORN AT LIVERPOOL, 16th Mar. 1810.

	s.	d.	s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.	
Wheat, English	16	3	to 16	9	per 70lbs.	Barley, Scotch	5	9	— 6	3	per 60lbs.
—— New Ditto	14	0	—14	6	ditto.	Malt, Fine	13	3	—13	6	pr 36 qts.
—— American	16	0	—16	6	ditto.	—— Inferior	10	9	—11	9	ditto.
—— Quebec	13	6	—14	0	ditto.	Beans, Small	63	0	—65	0	per qr.
—— Irish	11	0	—14	0	ditto.	—— Tick	62	0	—63	0	ditto.
Oats, Potatoe	4	0	— 4	2	per 45lbs.	Peas, White	70	0	—90	0	ditto.
—— Limerick	3	11	— 4	2	ditto.	—— Grey	49	0	—56	0	ditto.
—— Waterford	3	9	— 4	0	ditto.	Flour, Fine	83	0	—86	0	pr 280lbs.
—— Cork	3	8	— 3	11	ditto.	—— Seconds	80	0	—82	0	ditto.
—— Wexford	3	6	— 3	8	ditto.	—— Am.	59	0	—61	0	pr 196lbs.
Barley, English	7	4	— 7	8	per 60lbs.	—— Do. Sour	49	0	—52	0	ditto.

Monday, 26th March 1810.

SMITHFIELD MARKET.

To sink the Offal, per Stone of 8lbs.

Beef	5	4	to 6	6
Mutton	5	6	— 6	8
Veal	7	0	— 8	4
Pork	7	0	— 8	4
Lamb	0	0	— 0	0

NEWGATE AND LEADENHALL.

By the Carcass.

Beef	4	0	to 5	4
Mutton	4	8	— 5	0
Veal	4	8	— 6	8
Pork	6	4	— 7	8
Lamb	0	0	— 0	0

PRICE OF HOPS.—*Borough.*

Kent, bags,	£4	0	to 5	15	Kent, pockets,	£4	0	to 7	0
Sussex	3	10	— 4	0	Sussex	3	5	— 4	4
Essex	4	0	— 5	0	Essex	6	0	— 10	0

Average Price of Brown or Muscovado Sugar 53*s.* 11*d.* per cwt. exclusive of Customs and Excise payable thereof.—*T. Nettleship, Clerk of the Grocer's Company.*—From London Gazette of 24th March 1810.

HAY AND STRAW.—Per Load.

ST. JAMES'S MARKET.							
Hay	£4	0	0	to	6	12	
Clover	7	0	0	—	—	—	
Straw	2	11	0	—	3	0	
WHITECHAPEL.							
Hay	5	5	0	—	6	14	
Clover	£6	10	—	7	16		
Straw	2	8	—	2	10		
SMITHFIELD.							
Hay	5	15	—	6	6		
Clover	6	6	—	7	0		
Straw	2	2	—	2	10		

PRICE OF COALS.

Newcastle	64	0	—	70	0	Cinders	40	0	—	—	—
Sunderland	60	0	—	70	0	Other Coals	60	0	—	73	—

Delivered at 12*s.* advance on the above prices.

POTATOES per Ton, at SPITALFIELDS.

Kidneys	£4	0	to 5	10	Ox-Nobles	£3	0	to 3	15
Champions	4	0	— 4	10	Common Red	2	10	— 3	

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Brimstone, cwts,		Raisins, Smyrna, cwts.	940
Bristles, doz. lbs.	6,710	Rice,	1,278
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Cochineal, lb.	760	Silk, Thrown, lbs.	10,060
Coffee, cwt.	14,000	——, Raw, lbs.	22,320
Cork, tons	118	Smalts, lbs.	1,500
Cotton, lbs.	127,000	Sugar, cwts.	127,108
Currants, cwts.	1,000	Tallow, tons	96
Flax,	1,600	Tar, bar.	
Hemp, tons	791	Tobacco, lbs.	576,100
Linseed, qrs.	1,035	Wheat, qrs.	97,000
Madder,	46	Wine, galls.	657,000
Oil, Olives, galls	248	Wool, cwts. Spanish	6,261
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Altona, 2 *Us.*	28 11	28 11	28 11	28 11
Paris, 1 day's date	19 16	19 16	19 18	20 6
Ditto, at sight	20 0	20 0	20 0	20 10
Bourdeaux	20 0	20 0	20 0	20 10
Madrid ... *Effective*	44	44	44	44
Cadiz	39½	39½	39½	39½
Bilboa	41	41	41	41
Leghorn	60	60	61	61
Genoa	56	56½	56½	56½
Venice	52	52	52	52
Naples	42	42	42½	42
Lisbon	65	65	65½	65½
Oporto	65	65	65	65½
Rio Janeiro	71	71	71	71
Malta	56	56	55	56
Gibraltar	36½	36½	36½	36½
Dublin	9	9	9½	9½
Cork	10	10	10	10

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	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*
Wheat	102	3	Pease	56	9
Rye	59	3	Beans	50	9
Barley	46	4	Oats	27	11
Oatmeal	52	6	Beer or Big	37	0

CORN EXCHANGE.—Price of Grain, 26th March, 1810.

Wheat	78	to	95	Boilers	62	to	63
——, fine,	101	—	108	Gray	46	—	58
——, superfine,	110	—	112	Beans, new,	55	—	62
Rye	48	—	52	Ticks	44	—	54
Barley	38	—	50	Oats	22	—	30
——, fine,	50	—	58	Polands	38	—	
Malt	71	—	72	Fine Flour	85	—	90
White Pease	54	—	60	Seconds	80	—	85
Per sack of 5 bushels, or 280 lb.				Rapeseed	46	—	51

PRICE OF CORN AT LIVERPOOL, 16th Mar. 1810.

	s.	d.	s.	d.		s.	d.	s.	d.	
Wheat, English	16	3	to 16	0	per 70lbs.	Barley, Scotch	5	9	— 6	3	per 60lbs.
—— New Ditto	14	0	—14	6	ditto.	Malt, Fine	13	3	—13	6	pr 36 qts.
—— American	16	0	—16	6	ditto.	—— Inferior	10	9	—11	9	ditto.
—— Quebec	13	6	—14	0	ditto.	Beans, Small	63	0	—65	0	per qr.
—— Irish	11	0	—14	0	ditto.	—— Tick	62	0	—63	0	ditto.
Oats, Potatoe	4	0	— 4	2	per 45lbs.	Peas, White	70	0	—90	0	ditto.
—— Limerick	3	11	— 4	2	ditto.	—— Grey	49	0	—56	0	ditto.
—— Waterford	3	9	— 4	0	ditto.	Flour, Fine	83	0	—86	0	pr 280lbs.
—— Cork	3	6	— 3	11	ditto.	—— Seconds	80	0	—82	0	ditto.
—— Wexford	3	6	— 3	8	ditto.	—— Am.	59	0	—61	0	pr 196lbs.
Barley, English	7	4	— 7	8	per 60lbs.	—— Do. Sour	49	0	—52	0	ditto.

Monday, 26th March 1810.

SMITHFIELD MARKET.

To sink the Offal, per Stone of 8lbs.

Beef	5	4	to 6	6
Mutton	5	6	— 6	8
Veal	7	0	— 8	4
Pork	7	0	— 8	4
Lamb	0	0	— 0	0

NEWGATE AND LEADENHALL.

By the Carcass.

Beef	4	0	to 5	4
Mutton	4	8	— 5	0
Veal	4	8	— 6	8
Pork	6	4	— 7	8
Lamb	0	0	— 0	0

PRICE OF HOPS.—*Borough.*

Kent, bags,	£4	0	to 5	15	Kent, pockets,	£4	0	to 7	0
Sussex	3	10	— 4	0	Sussex	3	5	— 4	4
Essex	4	0	— 5	0	Essex	6	0	— 10	0

Average Price of Brown or Muscovado Sugar 53*s.* 11*d.* per cwt. exclusive of Customs and Excise payable thereof.—*T. Nettleship, Clerk of the Grocer's Company.*—From London Gazette of 24th March 1810.

HAY AND STRAW.—Per Load.

ST. JAMES'S MARKET.						Clover	£6	10	—	7 16
Hay	£4	0	0	to	6 12	Straw	2	8	—	2 10
Clover	7	0	0	—	— —	SMITHFIELD.				
Straw	2	11	0	—	3 0	Hay	5	15	—	6 6
WHITECHAPEL.						Clover	6	6	—	7 0
Hay	5	5	0	—	6 14	Straw	2	2	—	2 10

PRICE OF COALS.

Newcastle	64	0	—	70	0	Cinders	40	0	—	— —
Sunderland	60	0	—	70	0	Other Coals	60	0	—	73 —

Delivered at 12*s.* advance on the above prices.

POTATOES per Ton, at SPITALFIELDS.

Kidneys	£4	0	to 5	10	Ox-Nobles	£3	0	to 3	15
Champions	4	0	— 4	10	Common Red	2	10	— 3	

MARCH 23, 1810.

N. signifies Barrel; *Bl.* Bushel; *Ch.* Chest; *C.* 112lb. *D.* Dozen; *G.* Gallon; *H.* 100, and *o* Deals 120; *J.* Jar of Oil of 24 Gallons; and a ½ Chest of Oil 30 Flasks, or 4 Gallons; *Lt.* Last, or Barrels of Pitch, containing 31½ Gallons each; *Q.* Quarter, of 8 Bushels; *T.* Ton or 20 cwt; *Tu.* Tun of 252 Gallons.—NOTE, Wine is sold by Gauge, viz. Port per Pipe of 138 Gallons; Bucellas and Lisbon per Pipe of 140 Gallons; Sherry per Butt of 150 Gallons; Madeira per Pipe of 110 Gallons; Mountain per Butt of 126 Gallons; Vidonia per Pipe of 420 Gallons; Rhenish per Aum of 36 Gallons; and Claret per Hogshead of 57 or 58 Gallons; (all Increase and Decrease is adjusted.) All Kinds of Fish Oil is sold per Tun of 252 Gallons; Olive, Linseed, and Rape Oil, per Tun of 236 Gallons.

N. B The Duties which are paid by the Importers are included in the following Prices, and the Drawback, if Exported within three Years, is the Property of the Shipper.

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	
ALUM English	22	10	0	25	0	0	T.
—— Roach	1	18	0	0	0	0	C.
Almonds Barbary Butts	4	15	0	0	0	0	—
—— Sweet	5	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Jordan	14	15	0	16	16	0	—
—— Valentia	4	16	0	6	0	0	—
Annatto Flag	0		3	0	1	6	lb.
—— Spanish	0	4	9	0	5	0	—
Argol Boh.&Rhe. white	6	15	0	7	0	0	C.
—— Florence White	6	0	0	6	15	0	—
—— Red	6	10	0	0	0	0	—
—— Naples White	4	12	0	0	0	0	—
—— Red	4	0	0	4	8	0	—
Ashes Amer. Pearl,	3	10	0	0	0	0	—
—— Pot best	3	8	0	3	10	0	—
—— Barilla Teneriffe	2	16	0	2	18	0	—
—— Spanish	3	5	0	0	0	0	—
—— Sicily	2	12	6	0	0	0	—
—— Dantzic Pearl	uncertain			0	0	0	—
—— Russia Pot	2	18	0	0	0	0	—
BERRIES, Juniper, Ger.	2	0	0	2	6	0	—
—— Italian	2	18	0	3	0	0	—
—— Yellow Turkey	3	10	0	3	15	0	—
Brandy Best	1	5	0	1	6	0	G.
—— Inferior	1	4	0	1	5	0	—
Brimstone Foreign Ro.	22	0	0	26	10	0	T.
Bristles Hog Russia und.	17	10	0	0	0	0	C.
—— Archangel do.	17	0	0	18	0	0	—
—— Koningsberg do.	18	0	0	18	10	0	—
CAPERS, French	7	0	0	13	0	0	—
—— Spanish	3	0	0	6	0	0	—
Cochineal Spa. Garbled	2	0	0	2	2	0	lb.
—— East India	0	7	6	0	8	6	—
Cocoa West India	3	18	0	4	10	0	C.
—Carracca for Export.	5	16	0	6	6	0	—
Coffee W. I. very ord.	3	16	0	4	16	0	—
—— ord.	4	11	0	5	0	0	—
—— mid.	5	3	0	5	18	0	—
—— good	6	0	0	6	10	0	—
—— fine	6	10	0	7	0	0	—
—Mocha or East Ind.	18	0	0	20	0	0	—
—— Java	5	0	0	6	0	0	—
Copper, unmanufac.	5	17	6	0	0	0	—
—— manufactured	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Japan	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
Copperas, Green	0	7	6	0	0	0	—

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	
Cotton Wool	Brazil: Pernambuc	0	2	3	0	2	4	lb.
	Brazil: Bahia	0	2	0	0	2	1	—
	Brazil: Maranham	0	2	4	0	2	1	—
	Brazil: Para	0	1	10	0	1	11	—
	Dutch: Surinam	0	2	0	0	2	1	—
	Dutch: Demerara	0	1	10	0	2	1	—
	Dutch: Berbice	0	1	10	0	2	1	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Carriacou	0	2	0	0	2	1	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Grenada	0	1	8	0	1	9	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Barbadoes	0	1	8	0	1	9	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Domingo	0	1	6	0	1	8	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Martinico	0	1	6	0	1	8	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Jamaica	0	1	6	0	1	8	—
	West Indies, No Duty allowed: Bahama	0	1	5	0	1	8	—
DYER'S Wood, Bar W.		24	0	0	25	0	0	T.
—— Brazil		115	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Brazilet		13	0	0	15	0	0	—
—— Cam Wood		42	0	0	46	0	0	—
—— Fustic		23	0	0	24	0	0	—
—— Zant or young		20	0	0	21	0	0	—
—— Logwood Camp		44	0	0	46	0	0	—
—— Hond. chipt		38	0	0	40	0	0	—
—— Jamaica chipt		34	0	0	36	0	0	—
—— unchipt		0	0	0	0	0	0	—
—— Nicaragua, large		55	0	0	60	0	0	—
—— small		16	0	0	18	0	0	—
—— Sanders Red		40	0	0	45	0	0	—
DRUGS.								
ALOES, Barbadoes		28	0	0	30	0	0	C.
—— Succotorine		16	0	0	17	0	0	—
—— Hepatic or E. I.		10	0	0	0	0	0	—
Angelica Root		5	10	0	0	0	0	—
Antimony Crude		6	0	0	7	0	0	—
Arsenic Red		5	0	0	5	5	0	—
—— White		3	15	0	4	0	0	—
Balsam Capivi		0	5	8	0	0	0	lb.
—— Peru		0	9	6	0	10	0	—
—— Tolu		0	4	0	0	0	0	—
Bark, Jesuits,		0	4	0	0	4	6	—
—— Red		1	10	0	1	12	0	—
—— Yellow		0	4	8	0	6	0	—
Borax, refined E. I.		4	18	0	5	0	0	C.
—— English		0	2	4	0	0	0	lb.
—— unrefined or Tinc.		6	10	0	0	0	0	C.
Camphire Refined		0	8	0	0	9	0	lb.
—— Unrefined		27	0	0	0	0	0	C.

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	per
Cantharides	0	1	6	0	16	0	lb.
Cardemoms (best)	0	10	0	0	10	6	—
Cassia Buds	14	0	0	14	0	0	C.
——Fistula W. I.	3	15	0	5	0	0	—
——Lignea	6	0	0	18	0	0	—
Castor Oil p. bot. 1½lb.	0	5	6	0	0	0	bo
Coculus Indicus	10	0	0	0	0	0	C.
Colocynth Turkey	0	3	0	0	3	6	lb.
Columbo Root	3	14	0	4	0	0	C.
Cream of Tartar	10	0	0	11	0	0	—
Essence of Bergamot	0	11	0	0	0	0	lb.
—— Lavender	0	7	6	0	8	0	lb.
—— Lemon	0	11	6	0	0	0	—
—— Origanum	0	7	6	0	8	0	—
—— Rosemary	0	4	6	0	5	0	—
Gallangal, East India	2	15	0	3	0	0	C.
Gentian Root	4	12	0	0	0	0	C.
Ginseng	0	2	0	0	2	6	lb.
Gum Ammo. Drop	22	0	0	26	0	0	C.
—— Lump	8	0	0	12	0	0	—
Gum Arabic E. I.	2	10	0	4	10	0	C.
—— Turkey fine	9	0	0	11	11	0	—
—— Barbary	2	16	0	3	0	0	—
—— Assafœtida	5	0	0	12	0	0	—
—— Benjamin	16	0	0	29	0	0	—
—— Cambogium	20	0	0	26	0	0	—
—— Copal scraped	0	3	6	0	4	0	lb.
—— Galbanum	8	10	0	9	0	0	C.
—— Guaiacum	0	3	6	0	5	0	lb.
—— Mastic	0	6	2	0	6	6	—
—— Myrrh	25	0	0	28	0	0	C.
—— Olibanum	6	0	0	9	0	0	C.
—— Sandrac	6	10	0	0	0	0	—
—— Seneca, garbled	5	0	0	5	2	6	—
—— Tragacanth	10	0	0	21	0	0	—
Jalap	0	3	6	0	3	8	lb.
Ipecacuanha	0	16	0	0	18	0	—
Isinglass, Book	1	3	0	0	0	0	—
——— Leaf	1	5	0	0	0	0	—
——— Long Staple	1	9	0	0	0	0	—
Manna, Flakey	0	4	6	0	5	0	—
Musk, China	0	17	6	1	0	0	oz
Nox Vomica	2	0	0	2	10	0	C.
Oil of Vitriol	0	0	4	0	0	4½	lb.
Opium	1	4	0	0	0	0	—
Pink Root	0	1	0	0	1	4	—
Quicksilver	0	4	2	0	0	0	—
Rhubarb, East India	0	2	6	0	7	0	—
——— Russia	0	18	0	1	2	0	—
Saffron	1	16	0	2	4	0	C.
Sago	1	18	0	2	6	0	—
Sal Ammoniac	9	15	0	10	0	0	—
Salop	15	15	0	0	0	0	—
Sarsaparilla	0	1	10	0	3	3	lb.
Sassafras	3	0	0	0	0	0	C.
Scammony,	1	10	0	2	0	0	lb.
Senna	0	4	0	0	5	6	—
Seeds, Anni. Alicant	6	15	0	7	0	0	C.
——Coriander, English	1	3	0	1	5	0	—
——Cummin	3	8	0	4	0	0	—
——Fenugreek	3	10	0	0	0	0	—

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	per
Shellack	4	0	0	8	0	0	C.
Sticklack	4	10	0	7	0	0	—
Snake Root	0	3	3	0	3	6	lb.
Soap, Castile or Spanish	8	0	0	8	10	0	C.
Soap, Yellow	4	18	0	0	0	0	C.
—— Mottled	5	8	0	0	0	0	—
—— Curd	5	12	0	0	0	0	—
Spermaceti refined	0	2	4	0	0	0	lb.
Tamarinds West India	5	5	0	6	0	0	C.
Tapioca, Lisbon	0	0	6	0	1	0	lb.
Turmeric, Bengal	4	15	0	0	0	0	C.
——— China	5	5	0	5	15	0	—
——— West India	3	10	0	3	15	0	—
Verdigrise Wet	0	2	9	0	3	3	lb.
——— Dry	0	5	10	0	6	0	—
——— Crystallized	0	5	6	0	6	0	—
Vitriol, Roman	0	0	7	0	0	7½	—
EBONY, Black Rose	28	0	0	33	0	0	T.
——— Green	12	10	0	13	10	0	—
Eleph T. 70 to 90lb each	28	0	0	33	0	0	C.
———Scrivelloes	14	0	0	16	0	0	—
FEATHERS, Dantz.	0	3	0	0	3	6	lb.
——— Hambro'	0	2	2	0	3	0	—
——— Russia	0	1	10	0	3	0	—
——— Down	0	3	9	0	4	6	—
Flax, Riga	105	0	0	0	0	0	T.
---Petersburgh 12 head	92	0	0	0	0	0	—
GALLS, Aleppo blue	7	16	0	0	0	0	C.
———mixt	5	15	0	5	17	6	—
Geneva Holland	1	2	6	1	3	0	—
Glue, For. dry thick lea.	2	12	0	0	0	0	—
———thin	2	10	0	0	0	0	—
HEMP, Riga Rhine	71	0	0	0	0	0	T.
———Out shot	72	0	0	0	0	0	—
——Codilia	69	0	0	0	0	0	—
——Petersburg Clean	67	0	0	0	0	0	—
Hides Raw West India	0	0	4	0	0	5	lb
———Buenos Ayres	0	0	9	0	0	12	—
———Brazil	0	0	8	0	0	10	—
———Horse, British	0	15	6	0	16	0	Hi
INDIGO.							
Spanish: Guatimala Flora	0	11	0	0	12	3	lb.
Spanish: ———Sobres	0	8	9	0	10	9	—
Spanish: ———Cortes	0	5	0	0	8	6	—
Spanish: Carracca Flora	0	10	0	0	11	9	—
Spanish: ———Sobres	0	8	9	0	9	6	—
Spanish: ———Cortes	0	5	9	0	8	6	—
East Ind.: Brazil	0	1	6	0	3	0	—
East Ind.: Blue	0	10	0	0	11	6	—
East Ind.: Purple	0	7	6	0	9	3	—
East Ind.: Copper and violet	0	7	6	0	9	6	—
East Ind.: Copper	0	3	9	0	7	3	—
IRON British in bars	8	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——— in pigs	9	10	0	0	0	0	—
——Old Sable	23	0	0	29	0	0	—
——New Sable	21	0	0	0	0	0	—
——Gurioffs	21	10	0	22	0	0	—
——Archangel	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
——Swedish	20	0	0	0	0	0	—
LEMONS repa.	6	0	0	0	0	0	C

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	
Licorice Italian	41	5	0	0	6	0	C.
—— Spanish	10	10	0	0	0	0	
Lead, Pigs	26	0	0	0	0	0	T.
—— Mill'd or Sheet	29	0	0	0	0	0	T.
—— Bars	28	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Shot No. 1 to 5	40	0	0	0	0	0	
—— 6 to 12	42	10	0	0	0	0	
—— Litharge	40	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Red	35	0	0	0	0	0	
—— White	42	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Ore	27	0	0	0	0	0	
MADDER, Dutch Cro.	5	15	0	6	15	0	C.
—— Ombro	4	10	0	5	10	0	
—— Garance	2	5	0	4	10	0	
—— Mulls	0	10	0	1	0	0	
—— Roots	0	77	0	0	78	0	
Mats, Archangel	7	0	0	0	0	0	H.
OIL Lucca or Sallad	30	0	0	35	0	0	Jr
—— ½ chest	4	4	0	4	10	0	
—— Olive Barbary	81	0	0	82	0	0	T.
—— Gallipoli	75	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Palm	3	15	0	0	0	0	C.
—— Turpentine, Eng.	7	10	0	8	0	0	
—— Foreign	7	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Rape English	60	0	0	0	0	0	T.
—— Refined	65	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Linseed, English	78	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Cod Newfound.	41	10	0	0	0	0	
—— Sperm.	110	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Head Matter	114	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Whale, Greenland	35	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Brazil or S. Fish	32	0	0	0	0	0	
Orange Lisb. repa. best	4	10	0	5	0	0	cb
—— St. Michael's	2	5	0	0	0	0	bx
Orchil-Weed, Canary B.	none			0	0	0	T.
—— Inferior	140	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Cape de Verd	90	0	0	0	0	0	
PITCH American	1	3	0	0	0	0	C.
—— Archangel	1	2	0	0	0	0	
—— Sweden	0	19	6	0	0	0	
—— British	1	1	0	0	0	0	
PROVISIONS. Butter Carlow 1st	5	0	0	5	2	0	
Cork 1st	4	18	0	5	0	0	
Waterford 1st	4	14	0	4	16	0	
Holland	5	10	0	5	16	0	
Friesland	5	0	0	5	18	0	
York Best	3	4	0	3	6	0	Fl.
Cumberland	3	0	0	3	4	0	
Irish Bacon new	3	5	0	3	14	0	C.
Beef India	10	5	0	10	10	0	Ti
Beef mess	7	5	0	7	7	6	
Pork India	9	12	6	9	17	6	Ti
—— new mess	5	12	6	5	17	6	
Hams, York	6	15	0	7	5	0	C.
—— Westphalia	4	10	0	5	5	0	
Rags Hambro' SPF	3	7	0	3	8	0	C.
—— FF	2	14	0	2	17	0	
—— FX	1	18	0	2	0	0	
—— Italian fine	3	12	0	0	0	0	
—— Seconds	3	0	0	0	0	0	
Rice	1	10	0	0	0	0	

	FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	
RAISINS, &c. Wholesale D's Prices. Currants	3	10	0	4	14	0	per C.
Figs Faro	2	0	0	2	16	0	
—— Turkey	2	10	0	4	0	0	
Prunes new	3	16	0	3	0	0	
Muscatels	6	0	0	10	0	0	
Bloom or Jar	4	0	0	7	0	0	
Sun or Sdls new	3	10	0	5	14	0	
Denia or Malaga	2	6	0	2	12	0	
Sultana	4	10	0	4	16	0	
—— Smyrna new	3	8	0	3	10	0	
Rosin	0	17	0	0	18	0	G.
Rum Jamaica	0	4	10	0	6	6	
—— Leeward Island	0	3	10	0	4	2	
SACCARUM Saturni	0	1	3	0	0	0	lb.
Safflower	4	10	0	6	10	0	C.
Saltpetre, Ea. In. Rough	4	0	0	4	5	6	
—— British, Refined	4	8	0	4	10	0	lb.
Smalts	0	1	9	0	2	9	C.
Shumack	1	6	0	1	10	0	D.
Skins undressed Goat Turkey	1	5	0	2	15	0	per
—— Mogadore	1	15	0	2	10	0	
Lamb Italian	12	12	0	0	0	0	
—— Spanish	6	0	0	6	10	0	
Kid Italian	17	0	0	0	0	0	
—— Spanish	6	0	0	9	0	0	
Seal Greenl.	0	2	11	0	0	0	skin
—— So. Fishery	0	6	0	0	10	0	
Calf British	0	10	0	0	12	6	
—— For. salted	0	0	6	0	0	11½	lb.
Bengal Skein	0	19	0	0	30	0	
—— Novi	0	23	0	0	44	0	
China 3 moss	none			0	0	0	
Silk —— 6 moss	0	32	6	0	38	0	
Milan	39	0	0	42	0	0	
Reggio	0	31	0	0	32	6	
Brutia	0	32	0	0	35	0	
Thrown 16 oz. to a lb. Raw 16oz. to a lb. Bergam	0	53	0	0	56	0	
Silk Brescia	none			0	0	0	
Silk Modena	none			0	0	0	
Piedm	0	59	0	0	65	0	
Milan	0	53	0	0	55	0	
Spices, Cinnamon	0	10	0	0	11	0	
—— Cloves	0	8	0	0	10	0	
—— Mace Long	2	6	0	2	12	0	
—— Nutmegs	1	0	0	1	10	0	C.
—— Ginger, Barbadoes W.	4	10	0	4	15	0	
—— Jamaica Black	4	10	0	4	15	0	
—— White	3	10	0	7	0	0	
—— East India	3	10	0	4	0	0	
—— Pepper	0	2	6½	0	2	7	lb.
—— White	0	4	3	0	4	4	
—— Dust	0	6	0	0	7	0	C.
—— Long	7	10	0	8	0	0	
—— Pimento or Jam. Pep.	0	1	11	0	1	11½	lb.
Spirits Malt	0	15	3	0	0	0	G.
SUGAR Waterside P. Antigua	0	77	0	0	81	0	C.
Barba. Clayed 1s	0	87	0	0	90	0	
—— 2d	0	83	0	0	85	0	
—— 3d	0	78	0	0	82	0	
Musco. or brown	0	77	0	0	81	0	
Dom. Nev. & Tor.	0	77	0	0	81	0	

* Sugars imported into Great Britain from the East Indies by the East India Company, are bonded, and on being cleared out of the East India Company's warehouses, for home consumption, the purchasers are to pay the custom duty of 1l. 2s. per cwt. Additional duty on all sugars 20 per cent. All white or clayed sugar of the British plantations imported since the 24th of June, 1809, pays a duty of 1l. 8s. 4d. per cwt. All British plantation raw sugar on being exported to Ireland or elsewhere, draw back 47s. per cwt. If foreign sugar, if warehoused, pays a duty of 1s. 10d. per cwt. on being exported. Refined sugar, called baward ground sugar, 56s. 6d.; and on bastard broken in pieces, 55s. 1d. All refined sugar, 45s. except double loaves, which is 63s. Refined sugar broken in pieces, is allowed a bounty of 53s. per cwt. on exportation. If exported in a foreign ship, 1l. 6d. less.

		TO £	s.	d.	FROM £	s.	d.	C.
SUGAR. Waterside Prices.	Grenada Muscov.	0	76	0	0	79	0	—
	Jamaica brown	0	77	0	0	79	0	—
	——— middling	0	80	0	0	81	0	—
	——— good	0	82	0	0	83	0	—
	——— fine	0	85	0	0	86	0	—
	St Kitts & Monts.	0	78	0	0	84	0	—
	Tobago & St Vin.	0	77	0	0	81	0	—
	Surinam & Dem.	0	76	0	0	78	0	—
	Trinidad	0	77	0	0	79	0	—
	East India	0	74	0	0	81	0	—
Sugar Brokers Prices	Ground tips	0	75	0	0	78	0	—
	——— middles	0	80	0	0	86	0	—
	——— Faces	0	84	0	0	90	0	—
	Lumps, Brown	0	116	0	0	0	0	—
	——— Middling	0	119	0	0	128	0	—
	——— Best	0	122	0	0	124	0	—
	Sing. Loa. Brown	0	118	0	0	122	0	—
	——— Middling	0	123	0	0	0	0	—
	——— Best	0	124	0	0	126	0	—
	Powder Loaves	0	127	0	0	137	0	—
	Molasses	0	39	0	0	0	0	—
TALLOW Town		4	18	6	0	0	0	—
——— Russian Yellow		3	13	0	0	0	0	—
——— White		3	10	0	0	0	0	—
——— Soap		3	10	0	0	0	0	—
Rough Fat		0	5	0	0	0	0	st.
TAR Carolina		uncert.			0	0	0	C.
——Virginia					0	0	0	—
——Archangel		2	10	0	0	0	0	—
——Stockholm		2	12	0	0	0	0	—
TEA without Duty or Excise.								
——Bohea		0	1	4	0	2	0	lb.
——Congou		0	3	2	0	3	10	—
——Campoi		0	3	6	0	3	9	—
——Pekoe		0	4	0	0	4	7	—
——Twankay		0	3	5	0	3	9	—
——Hyson Skin		0	3	6	0	4	0	—
——Hyson		0	4	10	0	5	10	—
——Gunpowder		0	5	8	0	7	1	C.
TIN in bars on board		6	2	0	0	0	0	—
——In Blocks do.		6	3	0	0	0	0	—
——Grain in blocks		8	0	0	8	8	0	—
TIMBER. Deals	Dantz 3inby 40ft	3	10	0				each per C. Ld.
	——2½——36	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	——2——30	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	Archangel	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	Petersburgh	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	Narva Yellow	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	——White	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
Dantzick Fir		13	0	0	0	0	0	—

		FROM £	s.	d.	TO £	s.	d.	Per
TIMBER. American	Memel Fir	12	10	0	0	0	0	—
	Riga Fir	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
	Oak Board	12	10	0	0	0	0	—
	Pine Boards	8	5	0	0	0	0	—
	Timber	0	0	0	0	0	0	—
Tobacco bonded	Maryland fi.	0	1	1	0	1	4	—
	Good Colour	0	0	10	0	1	0	lb.
	——Middling do.	0	0	9	0	0	10	—
	——Virginia fine	0	1	1	0	1	4	lb.
	——Ordinary	0	0	9	0	0	11	—
	——Carolina	0	0	7½	0	1	1	—
	——Georgia	0	0	10	0	1	1	—
	——Strip leaf	0	1	2	0	1	4	—
	——Turkey	0	1	4	0	1	8	—
Tortoise-shell		0	18	0	1	3	0	—
Turpentine, American		2	4	0	0	0	0	C.
Valonia		21	0	0	22	0	0	T.
Vermilion, Dutch		0	4	10	0	0	0	lb.
——China		0	5	0	0	7	6	—
WAX, Bees, English		16	0	0	0	0	0	C.
——American		15	0	0	15	10	0	—
——African		11	0	0	11	11	0	—
——Dantzic & Ham.		16	0	0	16	10	0	—
——Hambro' white.		0	3	8	0	0	0	lb.
WINE Dealers Prices of	Red Port	98	0	0	105	0	0	P.
	——Old	106	0	0	108	0	0	—
	Sherry	92	0	0	100	0	0	Bt
	Lisbon	90	0	0	94	0	0	P.
	Valonia	73	0	0	78	0	0	—
	Bucellas	95	0	0	100	0	0	—
	Mount. Old	90	0	0	70	0	0	Bt
	Madeira Old	80	0	0	120	0	0	P.
	Claret	70	0	0	90	0	0	H.
	Rhenish	0	0	0	0	0	0	A.
Wood, Box American		0	0	0	0	0	0	T.
——Turkey		16	0	0	23	0	0	—
——Cedar, Carolina		0	0	6½	0	0	11	Ft
——Jamaica		0	1	0	0	0	0	—
Lignum Vitæ Jamaica		14	0	0	32	0	0	T.
——Providence		11	0	0	21	0	0	—
——Mahogany Hisp.		0	2	3	0	2	9	Ft
——Honduras		0	1	5	0	1	7	—
Wool Beav. Ruffin Best		0	82	0	0	0	0	—
——Wools Brown		0	80	0	0	0	0	lb.
——Best White		0	74	0	0	0	0	—
——White Stage		0	46	0	0	0	0	—
——Coat Seasoned		0	40	0	0	0	0	—
——Coney English		0	17	6	0	0	0	—
——Goats Smyrna		0	4	6	0	3	9	—
——Vigonia Red		0	11	0	0	14	0	—
——Pale		0	4	6	0	5	0	—
Yarn Mohair Smyrna		0	4	6	0	9	0	—

PREMIUMS OF INSURANCE FROM LONDON.

At 2gs. To Yarmouth, Hull, Newcastle, Liverpool, Chester, &c.—At 3 gs. Ports of Scotland, Weymouth, Dartmouth, Plymouth, Jersey, Guernsey.—At 3 gs. Dublin, Cork, Derry, Limerick, Bristol, Chester, &c. From Liverpool, Bristol, &c. to Dublin, Cork, or Waterford.—Bengal, Madras, or China.—At 4 gs. St. Helena, or Cape of Good Hope, Dublin, Cork, &c. to London, (Comp. ships) return 2l. From Poole, &c. to Newfoundland, to U. S. of America, American ships.—At 5 gs. To Madeira to U. S. of America.—At 6 gs. Gibraltar, Madeira, return 3l.—At 8gs. Newfoundland, Labradore, &c. Jamaica, or Leeward Islands.—Brazil, South America, return 4l.—At 10 gs. Senegambia; U. S. of America (Bull. Ships) return 5l. Jamaica, South America.—At 12 gs. To Musquito shore, Honduras, &c. return 6l.—To East Indies, or home.—East Indies to London.—Westward and Leeward Islands to U. S. of America, Quebec, Montreal, &c.—At 20 gs. Southern Whale-fishery.—At 25 gs. Newfoundland, Jamaica, and Westward Islands.—To Gottenburgh and back 20 gs. return 4 with convoy.—Stockholm and places adjacent, 16gs. return 4.—Lisbon and Rio de Janeiro, 8 gs. return 3.—Oporto, 10 gs. return 4.—Mediterranean 8 gs. return 4l.—From Liverpool to America, 5 gs.—To Amsterdam and Rotterdam, 6 gs.

Daily Prices of STOCKS, from 20th of FEBRUARY to 20th of MARCH, 1810.

	Bank Stock.	3 per Cent. Reduced.	3 per Cent. Consols.	4 per Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 per Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol Short An.	5 per Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 per Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	Old Annuities.	New Ditto.	Viet. Bills.	3¼ d. Exchequer Bills.	Lottery Tickets.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 per Cent.
																			£ s. d.			
1810.																						
Feb. 20	276	68⅛	67⅝	83⅜	—	99⅛	18⅞							9 11p				8p		67⅜		
21	275½	69¼	67⅝	83⅞	—	99⅜	18¼				66⅞	—	186½	10 11p				8p		67⅞		
22	275¾	68⅜	67¼	83⅝	—	99⅜	18¼						186½	10 12p				8p		67⅝		
23	—	68⅜	67⅜	84⅛	—	99⅛	18⅛				67	—	—	11 p				10p		67¼		
26	276½	68⅜	67¼	84⅛	—	99⅜	18⅛			4 1¼p		—	—	12 p				10p		67¼		
27	276	68¼	67½	83⅝	—	99½	18¼			1¼p		—	185	11 12p				3 6p		68⅛		
28	—	68⅜	67⅜	83⅝	—	99⅜	18⅛					—	185¼	11 12p				6 10p		68⅛		
29	275¼	68⅛	67⅛	83⅝	—	98⅞	18⅛					—	—	10 8p				7 10p		68¼		
31	—	—	67¼	83¼	—	98¼	18⅜					—	—	17 15p				8 11p		68		
1810.																						
Mar. 1	—	68⅛	67⅛	83⅞	—	99⅛	18⅛					—	185¼	11 12p				6 10p		68⅛		
2	275¼	68¼	67⅛	83⅝	—	98⅞	18⅛					7¼		10 8p				7 10p		68⅛		
3	—	68⅛	67⅛	83⅝	—	98⅞	18⅛					—						8 11p		68		
5	—	68⅜	67¼	83¼	—	98¼	18⅜				66⅞	7¼	186½	11 12p				12 9p		68⅛		
6	—	68⅛	67⅜	83¼	—	98⅛	—				67⅛	—	185½	11 12p				10 13p		68¼		
8	—	—	67⅜	—	—	98⅞	—				—	—	—	11 12p				1 21 0p		68¼		
9	—	—	67¼	—	—	97⅞	—				—	—	—	11p				11 8p		68⅛		
10	—	—	67⅛	—	—	98⅛	18⅛				—	—	—	12p				11 8p		68⅜		
12	—	—	67⅜	—	—	98⅝	—				—	—	186½	—				9 12p		68⅝		
13	—	—	67⅝	—	—	97⅞	18⅛				—	—	185¼	11 12p				9 12p		68¼		
14	—	—	67¼	—	—	98⅛	—				66½	7¼	185½	11 12p				9 13p		68⅜		
15	—	—	67⅛	—	—	97	—				—	—	185½	11 13p				11 16p		68		
16	—	—	68⅜	83¼	—	98⅛	18⅛				—	—	—	15 18p				8p		68⅜		
17	—	—	69¾	—	—	99	18⅛				—	—	—	17p				4 9p		79⅜		
19	—	—	68¾	83¼	—	98⅛	18⅛				—	—	—	15 17p				3 9p		68		
20	276	67⅛	68⅛	83⅛	—	99⅛	17⅞				—	—	—	9 11p				3 8p		67¾		

The above are taken at the highest prices of the days.

ISAAC VALE, Stock-Broker, 74, Bishopsgate Without.